



**STEVE
MARSHALL**

ADVANCE IN ACADEMIC WRITING **2**

INTEGRATING RESEARCH, CRITICAL THINKING, ACADEMIC READING AND WRITING

ACSENDA SCHOOL OF MANAGEMENT
ACADEMIC WRITING—ADVANCED (ENGL102)



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I would like to dedicate this book to Jamie, Joey, and Miki.

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INTRODUCTION

Success in Academic Writing

Effective academic writing is key to success in higher education, and *Advance in Academic Writing* has been written with success in mind. Success in academic writing depends on many factors. Of course, academic writers need to be able to use accurate sentence structure and vocabulary, as well as appropriate style; however, effective academic writing is not possible without effective academic reading and critical thinking. Writers have to be able to understand and engage critically with academic texts written by experts, and this engagement needs to be evident in their writing.

Integrating Research, Critical Thinking, Academic Reading and Writing

Advance in Academic Writing is an integrated textbook that interweaves writing and key skills for academic success, including a chapter dedicated to understanding the basics of academic research. Each chapter is based on a theme of scientific or social interest, includes authentic academic texts, and contains carefully constructed tasks that relate directly to the texts: active and critical reading, critical thinking, academic vocabulary, academic style, and effective sentence structure (writing-related grammar). Each chapter ends with a writing task that includes opportunities for editing and peer review.

Learning, Reviewing, Consolidating, and Applying Knowledge

Students need to apply what they learn in general academic writing courses in many contexts across the disciplines. Sometimes this application of knowledge to context takes place concurrently, during an academic writing course. More often, application to context takes place months later. In this sense, it is essential that academic writing courses build in ways for students to review and consolidate new knowledge so as to increase the likelihood of its successful application later on. Put simply, it is not enough for students to read a text, follow instructions, do a task, then move on. For learners to internalize and retain knowledge, continuous review and consolidation are required.

Multi-Stage Review and Consolidation

Advance in Academic Writing is structured to include multi-stage review and consolidation. The writing tasks at the end of each chapter encourage self- and peer review with task-specific checklists and structured evaluation sheets. To encourage long-term internalization of knowledge, students consolidate key aspects of the content between chapters, in two dedicated review chapters, in the Handbook at the end of the book, and in the customized My eLab.

Acknowledgements

I would like to acknowledge the students I have taught over the years at University College London and Simon Fraser University, from whom I have learned so much. I am especially grateful to the students who provided samples of their academic writing and to the reviewers, whose comments were invaluable. I would also like to acknowledge the support of the following people at Pearson ELT: Stephan Leduc, Aude Maggiori, and Benoit Pitre. Finally, I offer my gratitude to editor Patricia Hynes, whose expertise, knowledge, and attention to detail I greatly appreciated.

HIGHLIGHTS



Opening Page

Each chapter opens with a quotation for reflection, an introduction of the chapter topic and theme, and a list of contents. Students engage with the chapter theme by doing an exploratory task.

Active and Critical Reading

Authentic texts on the chapter theme introduce language and text features for analysis. The texts—primarily excerpts of academic journal articles—are the starting point for the critical-thinking, vocabulary, grammar, style, and writing tasks that follow.



Critical Thinking

Critical-thinking tasks are linked to in-depth engagement with academic texts, with a focus on how to create effective arguments and how expert authors avoid logical fallacies in their writing.



Vocabulary

Students build vocabulary that is particularly useful in academic writing, such as reporting verbs and language for describing data. A short list of words and expressions from the chapter texts is selected for vocabulary development in My eLab.

Effective Writing Style

Students practise essential aspects of effective style in academic writing, including objective and subjective styles, appropriate formality, and correct in-text citations and references.

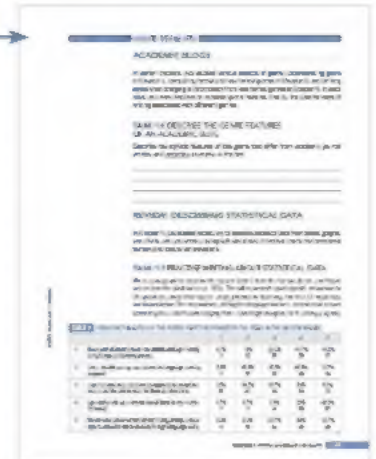


Effective Sentence Structure

Examples from the chapter texts are used to show accurate structures in context. The chapter focus is linked to a Handbook unit, which develops the topic further.

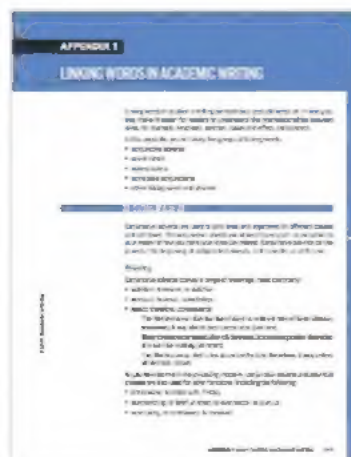
HANDBOOK: Writing Effective Sentences

Fourteen units expand on the grammar, sentence structure, and punctuation topics introduced in the chapters. Each unit is linked to additional practice in My eLab.



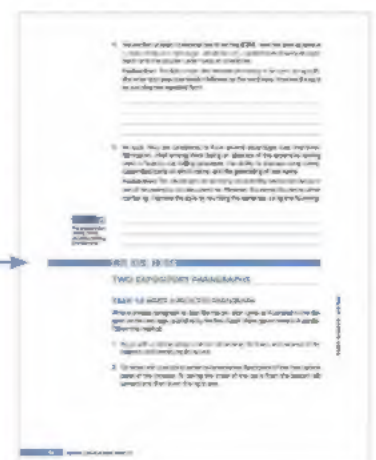
Write, Revise, and Edit

A final writing task gives students the opportunity to integrate their learning from the chapter. A checklist or review sheet is also provided for self- and peer reviews.



Appendices

Three appendices provide detailed explanations of linking words, cover the main aspects of APA citation style, and highlight common mistakes to avoid in academic writing.



SCOPE AND SEQUENCE

Chapter	Active and Critical Reading	Critical Thinking	Vocabulary	Effective Sentence Structure
1 Seven Stages of the Writing Process	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Journal article on multi-lingual students' academic writing 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> What is critical thinking? 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Strategies for learning vocabulary Formality: phrasal verbs and Latinate verbs 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Tense and aspect <p>→ Handbook Unit 1</p>
2 Understanding Research	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Expository text on the research process Journal article on a historic double-blind control trial 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Evaluate types of research 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Research-related vocabulary 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Articles, nouns, and noun phrases Passive voice <p>→ Handbook Unit 2</p>
3 Bringing in Others' Ideas: Reading	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Reading around a text Skimming Journal and newspaper articles on self-driving cars Scanning Annotating 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Genre and style in writing 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Anaphoric and cataphoric reference words Language of attribution 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Independent and dependent clauses Simple, compound, and complex sentences <p>→ Handbook Unit 3</p>
4 Describing Processes and Analyzing Data	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Encyclopedia entry on 3D printing Online article about air pollution statistics Tabloid article 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Engaging critically with statistical data and media statistics 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Describing data 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Subject-verb agreement Review of sentence fragments and punctuation <p>→ Handbook Unit 10</p>
5 Bringing in Others' Ideas: Writing	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Journal article on writing from sources Inferring meaning Online article on plagiarism in the music industry Assessing the reliability of sources 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Academic integrity versus plagiarism "Standing on the shoulders of giants" 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Guessing meaning from context Reporting verbs 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Relative clauses (defining and non-defining) <p>→ Handbook Unit 4</p>
6 Presenting Coherent Arguments	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Newspaper article on prisons in Sweden Note taking 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Role of prisons: rehabilitate or punish? Logical fallacies: cause and effect 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Language of opinion 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Punctuation: commas <p>→ Handbook Unit 5</p>
7 Writing Arguments in Essays	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Pre-reading research skills Locating stance, opinion, and relevance in abstracts Abstracts from academic journal articles and an academic blog on cellphone use in class 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Bringing life experience into one's writing 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Review of guessing meaning from context Exemplification 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Conditional sentences <p>→ Handbook Unit 11</p>

The Writing Process	Effective Writing Style	Write, Revise, and Edit	My eLab
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Seven stages of the writing process 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Using or avoiding personal language 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Paragraph about personal background Revise verb forms in paragraph 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> *Grammar diagnostic Supplementary reading and writing activities Vocabulary exercises Exercises on tense and aspect
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> 10 stages of the research process 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Writing in an objective, scientific style (passive voice) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> 100-word summary of the chapter article 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Supplementary reading and writing activities Vocabulary exercises Exercises on articles, nouns, and noun phrases
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Summary-writing process 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Adapting semi-formal style for academic writing Paraphrasing 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> 200-word academic summary Self- and peer review (with review sheet) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Supplementary reading and writing activities Vocabulary exercises Exercises on clauses and sentences
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Expository writing 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Review of effective style 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Process paragraph based on a diagram Paragraph describing data from two bar charts Self- and peer review (with checklist) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Supplementary reading and writing activities Vocabulary exercises Exercises on subject-verb agreement
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Response paper writing process 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Shifting style from conversational to formal Writing reference list entries in APA style. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> 200-word response paper Self- and peer review (with review sheet) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Supplementary reading and writing activities Vocabulary exercises Exercises on relative clauses
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Developing arguments 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Review shifting style from informal to formal 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Two opinion paragraphs Peer review (with checklist) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Supplementary reading and writing activities Vocabulary exercises Exercises on commas
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Forming outlines for argumentative essays 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Describing the genre features of an academic blog Review of describing statistical data 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Four-page argumentative essay Self- and peer review (with review sheet) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Supplementary reading and writing activities Vocabulary exercises Exercises on conditional sentences

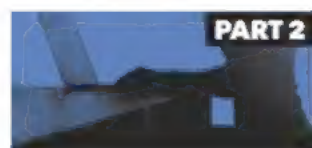
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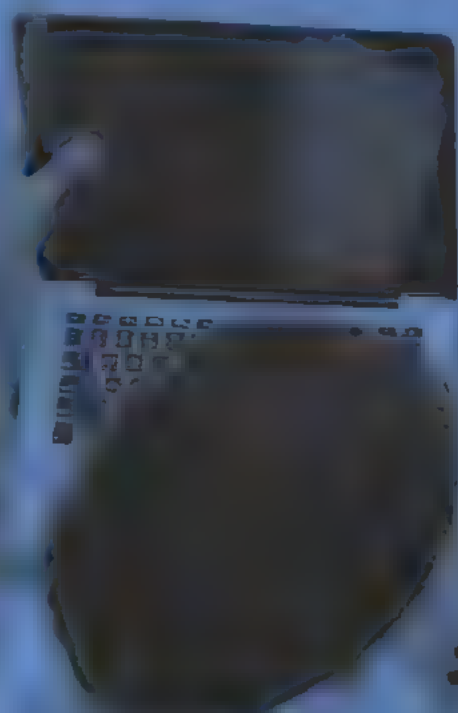
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PART 1

WRITING AND RESEARCH: GETTING STARTED



SEVEN STAGES OF THE WRITING PROCESS

Academic writing is a process. It is a sequence of stages. You go through these stages cognitively as you take each step in the process of creating the finished product: the essay, the lab report, the summary, or another type of text. At each step, you engage critically with new ideas to address a problem or answer your question. Following the words of the great English writer Samuel Johnson, to be successful in writing, you need to find new ideas and make them understandable to your reader while adding new perspectives to your reader's existing knowledge.

In this chapter, you will:

- read a journal article about multilingual students' experiences of academic writing
- learn four strategies for dealing with academic vocabulary
- practise using formal and informal vocabulary
- study tense and aspect in English
- study seven key stages of the writing process
- analyze the use of personal language in academic writing
- write about your background and writing style

TASK 1 EXPLORE THROUGH WRITING

What kind of writer are you?

When you do exploratory writing, the main purpose is to generate ideas about the topic. The style of the writing is less important; just try to write down as many ideas as possible. Take five minutes. After you have finished, share your notes with peers.

MULTILINGUAL STUDENTS AND ACADEMIC WRITING

In the following article, the authors analyze how students in an English for Academic Purposes (EAP) program deal with their writing assignments. The authors focus on three multilingual students and examine how their understanding changed as they did research and writing during their first year of university. The following are excerpts from the writing samples and interviews with two of the participants in the study: Fei and Laura.

What Our Students Tell Us: Perceptions of Three Multilingual Students on Their Academic Writing in First Year

by Janne Morton, Neomy Storch, and Celia Thompson

Fei is a Chinese student who at the time of the study was 20 years old and had been living in Australia for more than two years. After finishing her secondary education in China, Fei had “repeated” the last two years of education at an Australian high school. Fei lived with her family in Australia and only spoke Cantonese at home. At university, she was enrolled in an Economics and Business degree, majoring in Marketing and Management, and taking subjects such as Introductory Macroeconomics, Finance, Marketing, Organisational Behaviour, and Academic English: Economics and Business. . . . Fei . . . went on to successfully complete all subjects in the second semester, and by taking extra subjects in the summer semester, was able to graduate with a degree within three years. . . .

At the start of this study, Fei’s description of what academic writing meant to her focused on technical vocabulary and simple overall structure of an assignment:

good academic writing is meant to present high level knowledge by efficient use of academic vocabulary. . . a group of non-popular words that are specially used in academic reports and professional speeches . . . academic assignments need to have an introduction body conclusion. (First Writing Task)

She added that when writing an academic assignment:

I spend most of my time on looking up in the dictionary and forming academic-style sentences. (Interview 1)

Over the duration of her first year, Fei’s understanding shifted to one that saw writing in the academy as more complex and as much about process as product. In her mid-year interview, she spoke of the importance of:

picking up key words in instructions . . . guessing words in a paragraph by looking at the topic sentence . . . “parawriting” because teachers tell us it’s not good to use many quotes because someone has done much effort for original writing and you need to give more detail to show you understand. (Interview 3)

By the end of the year, her focus was on the choice of sources and their effect
 30 on potential readers:

I need to find suitable research sources and to incorporate these to fit cohesively with my own words and . . . to be traced by the reader. (Interview 5)

as well as on her developing meta-awareness of how rhetorical differences in the subjects she was studying influenced the selection of appropriate sources:

35 *Assignments in Management are relevant to a lot of theories that might be hard to find online but described in academic books frequently. Accordingly, to organise a good research-based Management assignment, students should reference more from academic books. Finance 1 assignments might rely on online material because you need to talk about real life and environment outside*
 40 *the university. (Final Writing Task) . . .*

The third student is Laura, who was born in Brazil and at the time of this study, was aged 25 having already lived in Australia for five years. She was thus a little older than Fei and Kevin and had spent more time in an English-speaking country than either of them. Laura described herself as a speaker
 45 of Portuguese ("first" language), Spanish ("second" language) and English ("third" language), but a writer of Portuguese and English only. She had been educated in Portuguese and Spanish in primary and secondary school, with some of her secondary education delivered in English. In Australia, Laura lived with her Brazilian husband and spoke Portuguese at home. At university, Laura
 50 was enrolled in a Bachelor of Arts degree, and in her first year she successfully completed subjects in a broad range of Arts disciplines including: Medieval History, Philosophy, Politics and Economics, Academic English 2 (first semester), and Ecological History of Humanity, Second Language Teaching and Learning, and International Relations (second semester). . . .

55 For Laura, the main challenge of academic writing was how to construct an effective academic identity for herself in her writing. . . . Throughout the year, Laura spoke of struggling to find a way to articulate her opinions, her experience, and her knowledge. . . . In linguistic terms, she noted that the first person singular ("I") could be used in academic writing to express opinions if one was
 60 also careful to use formal language:

We can use the first person if someone is asking our response and interpretation of a specific discussion and be academic at the same time using very respectful formal language. (First Writing Task)

But Laura also understood that the relationship between the personal and
 65 the academic was as much about knowledge and meaning-making as about academic conventions . . . :

Sometimes we start writing in a very confusing and personal manner because we don't know what to write about, and once we discover the path to follow and which way we should write, it makes it easier to write in a formal academic
 70 *manner. (First Writing Task)*

Disciplinary knowledge was viewed by Laura as central to the process of becoming a clear and authoritative writer. She described how in first semester

- she felt uncertain sometimes as to exactly what her thoughts were about the topics she was studying (Interview 2). By the end of the year, the process of engaging with content from a range of sources had enabled her to develop her own opinions. She was learning to be, as she put it, “more myself”:

I feel that I have much stronger views than before that relate to the subjects I am studying . . . I have my own opinion now. That has changed . . . I would like to impose myself more. (Interview 5) . . .

- She also revealed that if she wanted to obtain high grades, she would sometimes have to change her views and opinions when they conflicted with those of her tutors or lecturers—a recognition that academic success required her to negotiate heterogeneous disciplinary contexts with often highly asymmetrical power relations (cf. Canagarajah, 2002; Prior & Bilbro, 2012).



- In her final interview, Laura was still struggling with the concept of authorship in academic writing:

I used to use more quotes than I use now . . . I use a lot more of my own words . . . I paraphrase

- more . . . sometimes you're more of an author . . . sometimes I see my text going exactly the way that I want with that idea [from a source text] . . . [but] I don't think I'm an author yet—I think it's a process. (Interview 5) . . .*

- Fei's understanding of academic writing gradually moved from one of acquisition of “non-popular” vocabulary, grammar, and the mechanics of citation towards a more sophisticated view of writing as situated in the rhetoric of particular disciplines, with this shaping, for example, the relevance and appropriacy of types and locations of source materials. This shift, according to Fei, was the result of increased discipline knowledge and her growing awareness of the wide range of people and resources (both formal and informal) that she could draw upon when needed. . . . For Laura, university writing was a very different sort of struggle. From the start of the year, Laura saw this primarily in terms of the search for an authentic and authoritative academic identity in the disciplines she was engaged with. Her development in academic writing over the year was for her related to the interaction between increasing disciplinary knowledge, language, and identity.

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Excerpts from Morton, J., Storch, N., & Thompson, C. (2015). What our students tell us: Perceptions of three multilingual students on their academic writing in first year. *Journal of Second Language Writing*, 30, 1–13.

TASK 2 DISCUSS

In groups of two or three, talk about the following question: What is good academic writing? In your discussion, refer to your own opinions, your experiences as a student, and the ideas in the article. Also, consider the quotation from Samuel Johnson at the beginning of the chapter, regarding the powers of an author.

VOCABULARY

FOUR STRATEGIES FOR VOCABULARY LEARNING

When you read academic articles, you will frequently come across words that you do not fully understand. The following are four strategies for dealing with such words; you will practise these strategies throughout this book.

Strategy 1: Pass over the Word or Phrase

If you feel that understanding the word is not necessary to understanding the general idea of the sentence, you may decide to pass over it and carry on reading.

Strategy 2: Look at the Structure of the Word

Sometimes you can guess meaning from the different parts that make up a word. For example, if you came across the phrase *deregulation of banking* and did not know what *deregulation* meant, you could find clues in the parts of the word:

- *de*—a prefix that can mean “to reverse or remove”
- *regulate*—a verb meaning “to set rules”
- *ation*—a suffix meaning “the process of doing something” and indicating that the word is a noun

From this analysis of the parts of the word, you can guess that the meaning might be “the process of removing rules or controls in banking.”

Strategy 3: Guess the Meaning from the Context

You can try to guess the meaning from the context by looking at the surrounding text for clues. For example, you may find a sentence such as “The researchers attempted replication of a previous experiment” in an academic article about a medical experiment. If you did not know the meaning of *replication*, you could search for clues in the surrounding text. If, further on in the text, you were to find

a phrase such as “after repeating the experiment with a different group to test the findings,” you could guess the meaning of *replication* without having to look it up in a dictionary.

Strategy 4: Look Up the Word in a Dictionary

In many cases, you will need to look up the meaning in a reliable dictionary. When you look up a word or phrase in a dictionary, you will often find more than one possible meaning. You then need to return to the text you are reading and decide which of the definitions best fits the context.

It can be difficult to understand vocabulary in academic journal articles and books. This is because authors use vocabulary in specialized ways in different fields. Even if you know what a word or phrase means in a general sense, an author may have a different, specialized meaning in mind.

When you do not understand a word or phrase, or a specific use of a word or phrase, you need to choose and apply one of the four strategies above.

TASK 3 PRACTISE THE FOUR STRATEGIES

Find the word or phrase in the first column of the table by referring to the line indicated in the Morton, Storch, and Thompson article. Read the whole sentence. If you think that the word is not important to the overall meaning, you can pass over it (1). If you feel that the word is important, use one of the other three strategies to try to define it: look at the structure of the word (2), guess the meaning from the context (3), or look up the word in a dictionary (4). Write a definition in the Meaning column and indicate the strategy, or strategies, that you used. Remember: authors use vocabulary for specific meanings in academic texts, so even if you think you know the general meaning of the word or phrase, make sure that you understand its specific meaning in the article.

Word/Phrase	Line	Meaning	Strategies Used			
			1	2	3	4
shifted	22					
process	23					
product	24					
cohesively	31					
traced	32					
meta-awareness	33					
rhetorical differences	33					
articulate	57					
first person	58					
conventions	66					
disciplinary knowledge	71					
viewed	71					

Word/Phrase	Line	Meaning	Strategies Used			
			1	2	3	4
authoritative writer	72					
impose myself	79					
negotiate	83					
cf.	84					
paraphrase	89					
acquisition	95					
mechanics of	96					
sophisticated	97					
draw upon	102					
primarily	104					
interaction between	106					

*Words in bold type are Academic Word List (AWL) entries

My eLab

Practise Chapter 1
vocabulary online

TASK 4 MAKE SENSE OF COMPLEX ACADEMIC VOCABULARY

The following are three examples of complex academic vocabulary from the Morton et al. article. As a reader, you need to understand the overall meaning of the sentence. Read each example, and choose which of the two explanations, written in less technical language, is correct.

1. . . . a recognition that academic success required her to negotiate heterogeneous disciplinary contexts with often highly asymmetrical power relations. [LINES 82–84]

Explanation 1: This means that she realized that if she wanted to do well at university, she would have to figure out how to write in different subject areas, from a position of much less power than the people teaching her.

Explanation 2: This means that she realized that if she wanted to do well at university, she had to meet and agree with her teachers, who were strict and powerful.

2. . . . a more sophisticated view of writing as situated in the rhetoric of particular disciplines, with this shaping, for example, the relevance and appropriacy of types and locations of source materials. [LINES 97–99]

Explanation 1: She is now a better writer and can persuade her readers in different subject areas. As a result, she can now also choose better evidence and information from books and articles.

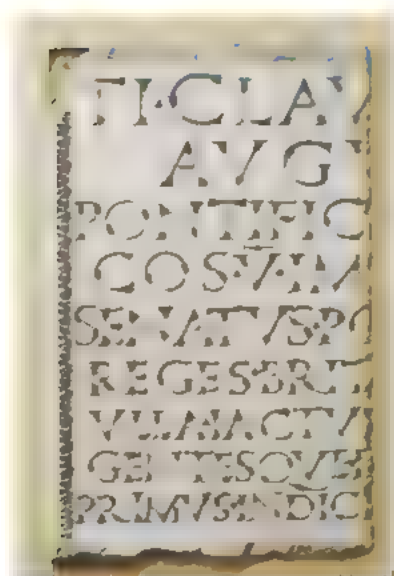
Explanation 2: She now has a more complex understanding of writing, accepting that it reflects how people persuade each other in different ways in different subject areas. These strategies affect how students find and use relevant and appropriate evidence and information in books and articles.

3. Laura saw this primarily in terms of the search for an authentic and authoritative academic identity in the disciplines she was engaged with. [LINES 103–105]

Explanation 1: Laura's main struggle was finding a real and confident sense of who she was as a writer in the different subjects she was studying.

Explanation 2: Laura had to look for examples of university writing that focused on reality, confidence, and identity in the different subjects she was studying.

VOCABULARY



FORMALITY: PHRASAL VERBS AND LATINATE VERBS

This book is written in Standard Modern English, a language that did not exist a thousand years ago. To understand formality in academic writing, it is useful to trace the origins of the English language. After the French Norman invasion of Britain in 1066, French was established as the high-status language of the elite in Britain, while Anglo-Saxon, a Germanic dialect, remained the lower-status, everyday language of many people. Over the next three hundred years, the two languages merged into Old English, which later became Modern English. The result of this history is that there are often two ways to say things in English, one with its origins in Anglo-Saxon and the other with its origins in Latin, which came to English via French.

Consider the following sentences:

1. I **looked into** the room to see if anyone had arrived early. (verb + preposition)
2. I **looked into** the possibility of moving closer to college. (phrasal verb)
3. I **investigated** the possibility of moving closer to college. (Latinate verb)

The words in bold in example 1 are a verb and a preposition. The preposition indicates the direction in which the speaker looked (i.e., into the room); it does not change the meaning of the verb.

Example 2 contains a phrasal verb, formed by combining a verb (*look*) with a particle (*into*). The particle in phrasal verbs changes the meaning of the verb—in this case, from “look + into” to “investigate.”

In example 3, the verb *investigate* is a Latinate verb. Latinate verbs tend to be longer than the verb components of phrasal verbs.

In academic writing, Latinate verbs are usually seen to be more formal than phrasal verbs, and many writers prefer to use them. In everyday speech and in less formal writing genres, phrasal verbs are more commonly used. English is rich in phrasal verbs; many have an equivalent, more formal alternative, often with its origins in Latin.

If you use too many Latinate verbs in your academic writing, it may seem overly formal. Equally, if you use too many phrasal verbs, your writing may seem overly informal or conversational. You need to strike a balance that makes your writing readable yet authoritative.

TASK 5 FIND THE LESS FORMAL VERBS

In Fei's interview and writing excerpts quoted in the Morton et al. article, she uses some less formal phrasal verbs and verb–preposition combinations. Match the following formal words and phrases to the less formal ones used by Fei.

1. searching in a book [LINE 20]: _____
2. acquiring [LINE 25]: _____
3. analyzing [LINE 25]: _____
4. discuss [LINE 39]: _____

TASK 6 FIND THE MORE FORMAL VERBS

The Morton et al. article contains many examples of formal academic vocabulary in the authors' writing as well as in Fei's and Laura's interviews and writing excerpts. Match the following less formal phrasal verbs to the more formal verbs used in the article.

1. bring into (my writing) [LINE 31]: _____
2. put together [LINE 37]: _____
3. build up [LINE 55]: _____
4. get across [LINE 57]: _____
5. find out [LINE 68]: _____
6. put together [LINE 75]: _____
7. went against [LINE 81]: _____

TASK 7 REWRITE FORMAL AND LESS FORMAL SENTENCES

1. Increase the formality of the following sentences by replacing the phrasal verbs.

a) I **tried out** the theory in my lab experiment.

b) I had to **make sure** that all of the equipment was working.

c) I **got over** failing and passed the second time around.

2. Reduce the formality of the following sentences by using phrasal verbs.

a) The medical students **performed** the procedure under supervision.

b) I wasn't sure what my instructor **was implying** in his feedback.

c) I **admire** my sister, who graduated within three years.

EFFECTIVE SENTENCE STRUCTURE

TENSE AND ASPECT

Tense

We use different verb tenses to situate actions and states at certain times in the past, present, and future. In the following examples, the time idea is underlined and the verb, in bold.

The assessed essay **is** due now. (present simple tense for present time)

At the time of the study, Fei **was** 20 years old and Laura, 25. (past simple tense for past time)

Both students **will graduate** next year. (future time)

Aspect

Aspect is slightly different. It refers to how an action or state relates to different time ideas rather than when it is situated in time. There are two kinds of aspect: perfect and continuous. Perfect aspect indicates a relationship between two time periods (for example, past and present, past and past, present and future, or future and future), while continuous aspect indicates that an action is, was, or will be in progress at a certain time.

Perfect Aspect

I feel that I have much stronger views than before that relate to the subjects I am studying . . . I have my own opinion now. That **has changed** . . . I would like to impose myself more.

In the example above, the present perfect tense is used by Laura to explain a relationship between the past and the present. When Laura states "That has changed," the past-time idea is indefinite (in other words, we do not know when the change took place). In this use of the present perfect tense, it is not important



when the change took place in the past; the present result (Laura's stronger views and desire to impose herself) is more important and is thus emphasized. This type of relationship between the past and present characterizes perfect aspect.

To form perfect aspect, use the auxiliary verb *to have*, followed by the past participle of the main verb:

That **has changed**.

Continuous Aspect

I feel that I have much stronger views than before that relate to the subjects I **am studying** . . . I have my own opinion now. That has changed . . . I would like to impose myself more.

In the same example, Laura uses the present continuous to explain that an action is in progress at the time of speaking. In this instance of the present continuous, Laura describes a temporary continuing action that is not necessarily taking place at the time of speaking. This illustrates the main feature of continuous aspect: an action in progress at a certain time.

To form continuous aspect, use the auxiliary verb *to be*, followed by the main verb + *ing*:

. . . the subjects I **am studying**.

Perfect and Continuous Aspect Together

Fei is a Chinese student who at the time of the study was 20 years old and **had been living** in Australia for more than two years.

In the example above, the authors use the past perfect continuous, which combines perfect and continuous aspect. The past perfect continuous is used to describe perfect aspect (a relationship between two past-time ideas: Fei began to live in Australia before the study took place) and continuous aspect (an unfinished past state in progress at a certain time: Fei was still living in Australia at the time of the study).

Do Unit 1: Tense and Aspect in the Handbook, pp. 167–172.

TASK 8 FIND APPROPRIATE PAST-TENSE FORMS

In the following paragraphs from the Morton et al. article, the verbs that refer to the past have been removed. Without looking at the article, fill in the blanks with appropriate past-time forms of the verbs in brackets. There may be more than one correct answer. If you know the names of the different tenses, make note of them in the margin. After you have finished, compare your verb forms with those in the article.

Fei is a Chinese student who at the time of the study _____ [be] 20 years old and _____ [live] in Australia for more than two years. After finishing her secondary education in China, Fei _____ [repeat] the last two years of education at an Australian high school. Fei _____ [live] with her family in Australia and only _____ [speak] Cantonese at home. At university, she _____ [be] enrolled in an Economics and Business degree . . . Fei . . . _____ [go on] to successfully complete all subjects in the second semester, and by taking extra subjects in the

summer semester, _____ [be able] to graduate with a degree within three years.

The third student is Laura, who _____ [be] born in Brazil and at the time of this study, _____ [be] aged 25, _____ [live] in Australia for five years. She _____ [be] thus a little older than Fei and Kevin and _____ [spend] more time in an English-speaking country than either of them. Laura _____ [describe] herself as a speaker of Portuguese ("first" language), Spanish ("second" language) and English ("third" language), but a writer of Portuguese and English only. She _____ [be educated] in Portuguese and Spanish in primary and secondary school, with some of her secondary education delivered in English. In Australia, Laura _____ [live] with her Brazilian husband and _____ [speak] Portuguese at home. At university, Laura _____ [be] enrolled in a Bachelor of Arts degree, and in her first year she successfully _____ [complete] subjects in a broad range of Arts disciplines.

TASK 9 IDENTIFY PERFECT AND CONTINUOUS ASPECT

Now look again at the Morton et al. article. Underline any examples you find of perfect aspect and **highlight** any examples of continuous aspect. You will need to underline and highlight some examples that represent both perfect and continuous aspect.

TASK 10 RESPOND TO PROMPTS

The prompts below provide context about tense and aspect. Read the prompts and write a corresponding sentence.

1. Your study period was interrupted by the fire alarm.

2. You came to Canada three years ago. You are living in Toronto.

3. You started university two years ago. You lived in Toronto for one year before that.

4. You have read your friend's essay. You predict success in her final exams.

5. You have arranged a visit to New York next week.

TASK 11 WRITE A PARAGRAPH

Write a paragraph about your own background as if you were a participant in the same study as Fer and Laura. Write in the first person, using *I* rather than the third-person *he* or *she*. Try to use a range of past tenses. Later in the chapter, you will review what you have written to add precision and variety to the ways you refer to past time.

THE WRITING PROCESS

SEVEN STAGES OF THE WRITING PROCESS

Academic writing can be understood as both *process* and *product*.

The *product* is the final piece of work, which you usually submit for a grade. This *product* will normally be assessed and graded by your instructors according to a list of criteria. The criteria are the things that you have to do well for grades, for example, organization and structure, content, and accuracy and style of language.

Process refers to the different stages of study and writing that you go through to create the final product, ranging from reading and note taking to writing and editing your work. Each stage requires specific skills in reading, thinking, and writing. People write in different ways, so writers may go through many stages to create the final written product. Below are seven important stages of the writing process to consider each time you face the challenge of a new writing assignment.

Stage 1: Understand Your Audience, Genre, and Purpose

Before you start writing, it is important to think about your audience, genre, and purpose. If you understand these three concepts, it will help you organize your ideas, decide on appropriate writing styles, and engage critically with your topic.

Audience

Your audience is your reader or readers. It is important to think about the expectations of your audience when you write and to consider the following questions:

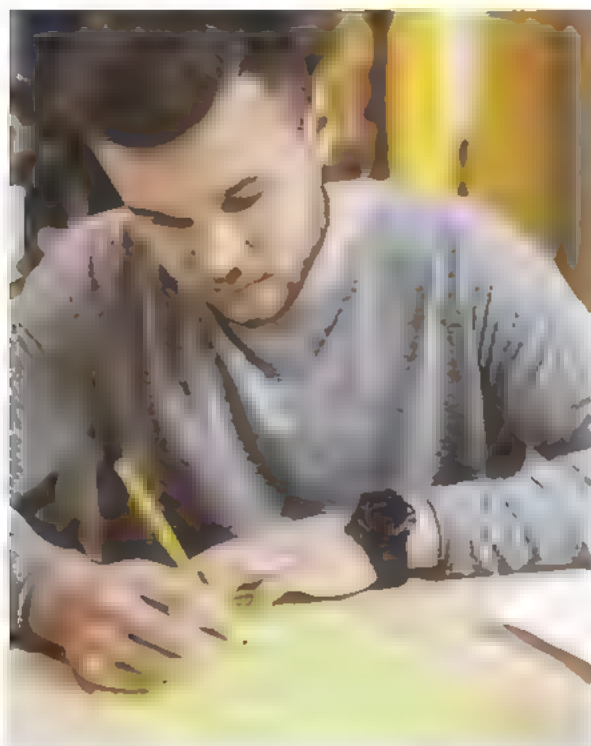
- Who is my audience?
- Does my reader have expert knowledge of the subject?
- Does my reader expect me to write in a certain way?

Genre

Put simply, the term *genre* refers to different types of text, for example, a lab report, a summary, or an online news article. You need to pay attention to genre conventions—the rules or common practices that are associated with each type of text. Some texts may be written more formally than others, some may require evidence

to back up arguments, and some may be structured differently from others. Genre conventions are determined not only by individual writers but also by different academic communities, or fields. For example, the rules for using personal language in academic writing are different in a lab report written for a biology class than in a reflective essay written for an education course. It is important to think about genre when you do different forms of academic writing and to consider the following questions:

- What genre is this text?
- What genre conventions do I need to follow?



Purpose

Every time you write, you have a reason. This is your purpose. If you are writing notes, you do not need to worry about style. However, if you are writing an exam essay or an assignment to be graded, then you need to take considerable care to meet your reader's expectations and to follow the genre conventions associated with the text. Ask yourself the following questions regarding your purpose for writing:

- Why am I writing?
- What is at stake?
- Can I take risks and be creative, or should I play safe?

To sum up, always consider the relationship between you, the writer, and your audience, the reader(s). Also, remember that different types of text have different genre conventions. If the stakes are high, you need to take care to follow those conventions.

TASK 12 IDENTIFY AUDIENCE, GENRE, AND PURPOSE

Look back at the exploratory writing you did for Task 1 and compare it with the academic article you read. Analyze each in terms of audience, genre, and purpose, and then describe how the writing styles differ.

1. Your writing for Task 1

Audience: _____

Genre: _____

Purpose: _____

2. Morton, Storch, and Thompson (2015)

Audience: _____

Genre: _____

Purpose: _____

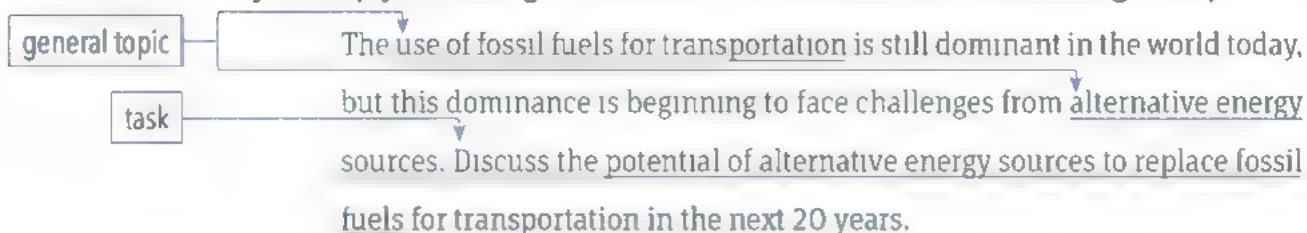
3. Describe how the writing styles differ.

Stage 2: Find Your Focus and Question

You will regularly encounter two kinds of writing assignment: closed assignments that require you to respond to a question set by an instructor, and more open assignments that require you to choose your own question.

Understanding Your Focus and Task

If you are given a specific question to answer for a writing assignment during a course, or in an examination, you need to break down the focus and task so that you keep your writing *in focus* and *on task*. Consider the following example:



The specific focus in the question is the dominance of fossil fuels in transportation today and the extent to which this dominance is being challenged by emerging alternative energy sources.

The specific task of a question is often indicated by a verb or phrase such as *discuss*, *analyze*, *compare and contrast*, or *describe*. This is what you have to do. Most of what you write needs to be about the focus and the task.

TASK 13 IDENTIFY THE FOCUS AND TASK IN AN ESSAY QUESTION

Read the following essay question and write the focus and task below.

Fossil fuels have been blamed for causing climate change, yet there are also several natural causes of climate change to consider. Compare the effects of fossil fuels and at least two natural phenomena on climate change. Do your findings support the view that governments should financially support the development of alternative energy sources?

Focus: _____

Task: _____

Choosing a Question and Subquestion

Many writing assignments require you to choose your own focus and task. In such cases, you first need to choose a question, research problem, or issue. Then you should bring in a number of subquestions to narrow your focus. For example, if you were asked to write an assignment on the topic of fossil fuels and alternative energy, you could form questions and subquestions as follows:

Question: Which alternative energy sources can feasibly replace fossil fuels for transportation?

Subquestions:

- Which fossil fuels are most commonly used for transportation in the world today?
- Which alternative energy sources are beginning to make an impact?
- What factors will determine their success? Technology, cost, environmental awareness?
- Which alternative energy sources therefore have the greatest chance for success?

When you are searching for academic articles, you can often find the main question and subquestion(s) in the abstract of the article. The abstract is normally a short summary (100–150 words) that includes the following: the main question, problem, or issue being analyzed; main supporting theories; methodology; findings; and conclusion. When you read the abstract, you can get a general idea of whether the article will be useful and relevant for your assignment.

TASK 14 IDENTIFY THE QUESTION AND SUBQUESTION(S)

Read the abstract below from the article by Morton et al. (2015). (See p. 7 for the full source.) Identify the main question and subquestions.

Abstract

Over the last couple of decades, there has been a growing recognition of the complexity of academic writing, including an interest in how learners negotiate the contexts within which they learn to write. As teachers in an EAP program, we approached this study with an interest in how our multilingual students negotiate the demands of their written assignments within particular disciplinary communities. The focus of the paper is thus on students' perceptions of what it means to "do" academic writing in their first year at university. A case study approach revealed the diversity of student perceptions of academic writing (as an issue of "skills" development, interpersonal relations, or the negotiation of authorial identities), as well as the multiplicity of resources that the multilingual students had at their disposal. It also allowed for insights into unexpected practices contributing to the students' progress as academic writers. Our findings suggest that the social context relevant for student writing includes but extends beyond the formal and academic, and embraces spaces and practices outside the institution. The current study was conducted in an Australian university, and one of its purposes is to add an Australian perspective to the growing body of case study research in academic literacy.

Main question: _____

Subquestion(s): _____

Stage 3: Gather Your Ideas

As a writer, you may do some research before you write down your ideas, write down your ideas first and then do the research, or do both concurrently. Whatever the order, you can use several strategies for gathering your ideas. In this chapter, you will practise three: free writing, concept mapping, and linear notes.

Free writing: This involves writing down as many ideas as you can in any style you choose. The main goal is to generate as many ideas as possible to get started with the writing process.

Concept mapping: Instead of writing ideas down freely, you may prefer to map out your ideas in interconnected circles or bubbles in a concept map. Then you can place and label arrows between the bubbles to represent the relationships between the ideas. As with free writing, the aim of concept mapping is to generate as many ideas as possible and to begin the process of understanding the inter-relationships of ideas.

Linear notes: You may prefer to write down your ideas in linear notes, listing as many ideas as possible in note form and organizing them under headings and subheadings.

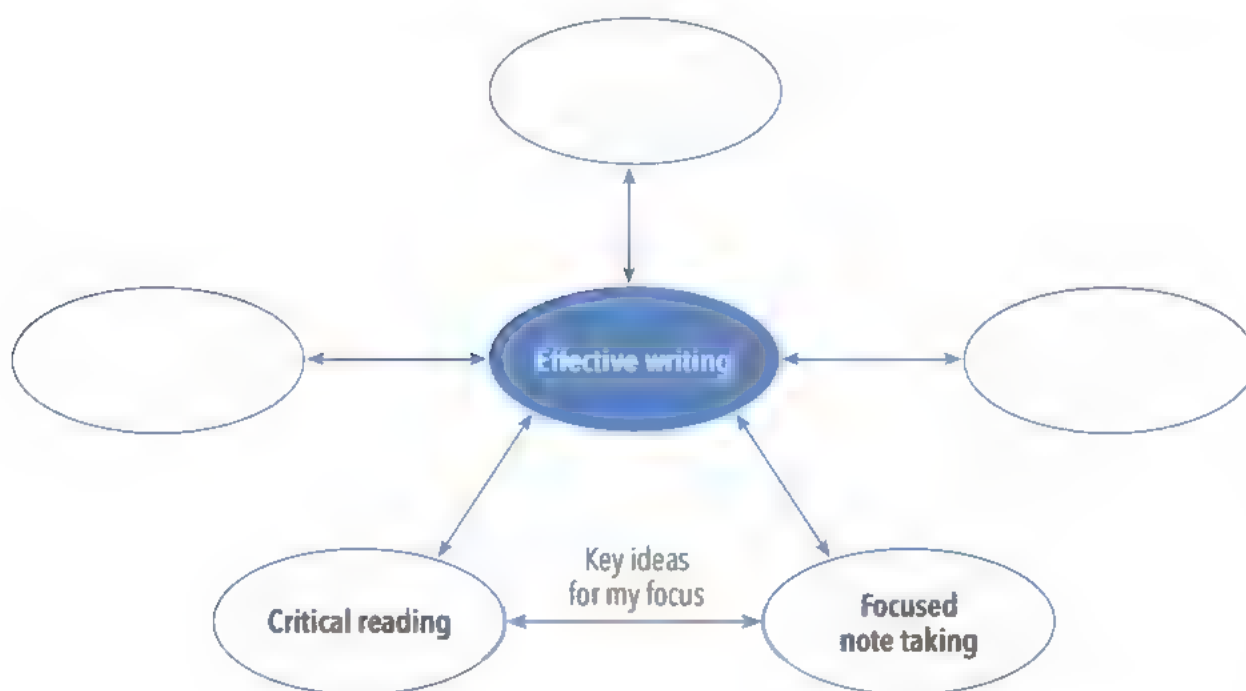
TASK 15 GATHER IDEAS

Practise gathering ideas in the three ways to see which method works best for you. After you have finished, discuss the effectiveness of the methods in pairs.

The topic is “How to become an effective writer in higher education.”

1. **Free writing:** Write as many ideas as possible on the topic. You do not need to worry about formal style and sentence structure—notes are fine. The most important thing is to generate as many good ideas as possible.

2. **Concept mapping:** Now try gathering your ideas on the same topic, using the concept map below. Fill in the bubbles with your ideas; then draw arrows between the bubbles and describe their interrelationships. Add bubbles as needed.



3. **Linear notes:** Write down any ideas you can think of and organize them under subheadings.

How to become an effective writer in higher education.

- a) Critical reading: critically engage with ideas in the text — consider relevance
+ my opinion; keep in mind my focus and task

- b) Focused note taking: annotate text as I read — include key ideas, my opinions, questions I have

c) _____

d) _____

e) _____

Stage 4: Form an Outline

Once you have analyzed your focus and task, identified questions and subquestions, and generated some ideas about the subject, you should form an outline for the essay. Different genres require different types of outline; for example, the outlines for a lab report and an argument essay would be very different. You need to be flexible as a writer and learn to arrange your ideas into different structures. In Part 2 of this book, you will study different strategies for forming outlines.

Stage 5: Add Research through Reading and Note Taking

Depending on the nature of the writing assignment and on your personal preferences as a learner, you may do research before, during, and/or after you form your outline. Two important skills you need to apply as you add research are assessing reliability and taking effective notes.

Make sure that the materials you use (e.g., articles, books, and other materials) come from reliable sources. You will study how to assess the reliability of sources in Chapter 5.

Second, make sure to take notes effectively. Your notes should include key ideas, questions that come to your mind as you read, and your personal opinions about the ideas. Taking effective notes also involves recording the information you will need for in-text citations and reference lists (e.g., author(s), date, place of publication, publisher, page numbers). You should use quotation marks for information that you copy directly. All of these aspects of note taking will help you write more clearly and will save you time.

The example on the next page is from the conclusion of the Morton et al. article. (See pp. 6–7 for the references and full source.) The text has been annotated for key information, the reader's personal opinion, questions that arise, and bibliographic information. Annotation involves taking notes as you read and may include highlighting key points in the text. You will practise annotating texts more in the coming chapters.

methodology case study

research found complexity

and diversity of the three

students' trajectories as

academic writers (p. 9)

only 5 not

a representative sample

Q really enjoyed, just

pleasing researchers?

Q same for native

speakers? no mention here

Q What does this mean?

benefits of research

for students

We conclude this paper with reflections on case study methodology. We approached this study with an interest in the experiences of our multilingual students. We found that longitudinal case studies were able to capture some of the complexity and diversity of the three students' trajectories as academic writers. In particular, we found that the five in depth interviews over the duration of the study fostered student researcher relationships that opened up space for insights into the unpredictable and unexpected practices contributing to the students' progress as academic writers (cf. Casanave, 2002; Pennycook, 2012). All three students told us they enjoyed the opportunities to talk at length with the researchers and especially to reflect upon their learning experiences—opportunities they said were not available to them elsewhere in the university. The in depth interviews, in our experience, encouraged self reflection and contributed to “the learning that happens as people listen to themselves put feelings and experiences into words” (Casanave, 2002, p. 33). The kind of reflexivity and the meta knowledge about writing that was built up in these interviews have been linked in other research to success in academic writing (Green, 2013), and could thus be seen as an unexpected benefit of participating in this type of research.

TASK 16 ANNOTATE A PARAGRAPH

The following paragraph is from an article that looks at the sense of belonging (the extent to which people feel they belong to a community) among undergraduate students who are taking a first-year academic writing course called ALC at a university in Canada. The paragraph is from the Discussion section of the article, in which the authors bring together the analysis of their findings.

Read the paragraph and take notes, including the following:

- key ideas
- questions that come to your mind as you read
- your personal opinions about the ideas
- a direct quotation (something that stands out for you)

Sense of Belonging and First-Year Academic Literacy

A broad range of factors affected ALC students' sense of belonging both to the university and to the course. First, participants described their sense of belonging to the university as being affected by interacting with peers, making new friends, interacting with faculty and advisers, living in residence, and having a manageable course load. Those who described a lack of sense of belonging

to the university linked it to two of these factors (interacting with peers and not making friends) as well as to the size of the campus and concerns about maintaining GPA. When participants described their sense of belonging in relation to ALC, they referred to improved academic literacy, small class size, new friendships, supportive learning environment, pedagogy, and instruction. Others perceived a lack of connection between their sense of belonging and ALC, stating that their sense of belonging was unrelated to the course. For those who referred to a lack of sense of belonging to ALC, the reasons they gave were a poor fit with curriculum and peers, lack of improvement in academic literacy, over-



demanding course load, class size, linguistic difference, and national identity. Finally, a number of participants described a sense of being between belonging and not belonging, and uncertainty about their sense of belonging, citing the following factors: it was too soon to say, they were still finding their way around the large campus, and they had concerns about their academic success and GPA.

Excerpt from Marshall, S., Zhou, M., Gervan, T., & Wiebe, S (2012). Sense of belonging and first-year academic literacy *Canadian Journal of Higher Education*, 42(3), 116–142.

Stage 6: Write the Essay Sections

Once you have completed stages 1 to 5, it is time to start writing the introduction, main body paragraphs, and conclusion, in whatever order suits your style of writing.

If you like to write in a linear fashion (i.e., you like to do things in order, one at a time, from a to z), you would typically start with the introduction, work through the main body sections, and then finish with the conclusion and reference list.

If you are not a linear writer, then you might write the sections in any order. For some writers, the introduction is the last section they turn to rather than the first.

As you write, keep in mind the three concepts introduced in this chapter: audience, genre, and purpose. Remember to keep *in focus* and *on task*.

Stage 7: Review and Edit Your Work

When you write, it is important to review and edit your work as you go along. You need to check the language for accuracy of grammar, vocabulary, and punctuation. You should also make sure you are writing in a style that is appropriate for the task. Equally important (many would say *more important*) is the content: make sure your ideas, arguments, and statements are clear, logical, well supported, and convincing.

WHAT IS CRITICAL THINKING?

Critical thinking is essential for successful academic writing. In the following chapters, you will study different aspects of critical thinking that will allow you to include arguments in your writing that are both coherent and convincing.

TASK 17 EXPLORE THROUGH WRITING

What is critical thinking?

Take five minutes to answer the question. You can write in any style you like. The main aim is to generate ideas. After you have finished, share your writing with peers.

TASK 18 DISCUSS

In the Morton et al. article, do the strategies described by Fei or Laura for becoming a successful academic writer convince you? Which aspects of critical thinking help you answer the question?

EFFECTIVE WRITING STYLE

USING OR AVOIDING PERSONAL LANGUAGE

In this chapter, you have studied excerpts from an academic journal article in which the authors did not use personal language such as *I* and *we* in their analysis of multilingual students' understanding of academic writing. In contrast, for Tasks 1 and 11, you most likely used personal language to describe your writing style and your background. The decision to use personal language or not depends on the genre and common practices in your field, the expectations of your reader(s), and your purpose for writing.

It is important to understand that using personal language in academic writing does not mean that your writing is informal. Rather, choosing to use personal language is a choice of style. In many subject areas, personal language is encouraged; for example, in the field of education studies, students are often encouraged to express their views subjectively with personal language. In other subjects, it is discouraged because it is seen to be unscientific and subjective.

When you write an assignment, be sure to find out if you should or should not use personal language. Regardless of the subject area you are studying, it is a useful skill to be able to use language effectively, switching from the personal to the impersonal as required.

Consider the following example sentences written in personal language and the four strategies for making them less personal.

I will discuss the extent to which natural phenomena contribute to climate change.

My analysis is based on the view that certain natural phenomena do cause climate change.

Four Strategies to Make Writing Less Personal

Learn more about the passive voice in Unit 7 of the Handbook, p. 210.

1. Use the passive voice instead of the active voice.

I will discuss the extent to which natural phenomena contribute to climate change. (active voice)

The extent to which natural phenomena contribute to climate change **will be discussed**. (passive voice)

2. Use an impersonal subject instead of a personal subject pronoun.

I will discuss the extent to which natural phenomena contribute to climate change. (personal subject pronoun)

This essay will discuss the extent to which natural phenomena contribute to climate change. (impersonal subject)

3. Use an impersonal phrase instead of a personal subject pronoun.

I will discuss the extent to which natural phenomena contribute to climate change. (personal subject pronoun)

The focus of this essay is the extent to which natural phenomena contribute to climate change. (impersonal phrase)

4. Replace *my* with an impersonal determiner.

My analysis is based on the view that certain natural phenomena do cause climate change. (possessive determiner)

The analysis is based on the view that certain natural phenomena do cause climate change. (impersonal determiner)

Determiners are words such as *the*, *this*, *those*, and *my* that come before a noun to explain its context.

TASK 19 MAKE SENTENCES LESS OR MORE PERSONAL

Refer to the strategies above and make the following sentences less personal (1 and 2) and more personal (3 and 4).

1. In the previous sections, I discussed the significance of natural causes of climate change. I suggested that certain natural phenomena do cause climate change.

2. I strongly believe that human produced CO₂ remains the most controllable factor in reducing climate change.

3. It has been argued that climate change will pose the greatest threat to economic stability in the 21st century.

4. The above paragraphs focused on two natural causes of climate change: volcanic activity and solar activity. Several impacts were then analyzed.

My eLab

Find supplementary reading, writing, and critical-thinking activities online

REVISE AND EDIT

REVISE VERB FORMS

Review the paragraph you wrote about your background in Task 11. Check your verb forms for appropriate tense and aspect, and try to improve them. Look again at Unit 1 in the Handbook for ideas on how to write about past time with more precision. After you have improved your text, complete the checklist below.

Checklist for Revising and Editing

- ☐ Have you checked your tenses and made changes to add more precision regarding the time ideas of actions and states?
- ☐ Have you considered perfect and continuous aspect and changed verb forms accordingly?
- ☐ Do you now have a broader range of tenses and verb forms?
- ☐ Does your paragraph flow better, and have you made it more readable?

My eLab

Do the online grammar diagnostic. Draw up a checklist of areas for improvement

UNDERSTANDING RESEARCH

„The important thing is to not stop learning. The only way to stay motivated is to keep learning.“
Albert Einstein

As suggested by Albert Einstein, research is a pursuit of new knowledge, a process of questioning and searching for answers in new ways. Understanding research is key to success in academic writing. Whether you are doing your own research project or reviewing existing research for an assignment, you need to be aware of the research process and of different types of research.

In this chapter, you will:

- learn about the research process
- study research vocabulary
- read a journal article about scientific research
- study articles (*a* and *the*) and noun phrases in English
- analyze the use of the passive voice in objective, scientific writing style
- write a 100-word summary

TASK 1 EXPLORE THROUGH WRITING

What is research, and why do it?

Take five minutes to answer the questions. Try to write as many ideas as you can.

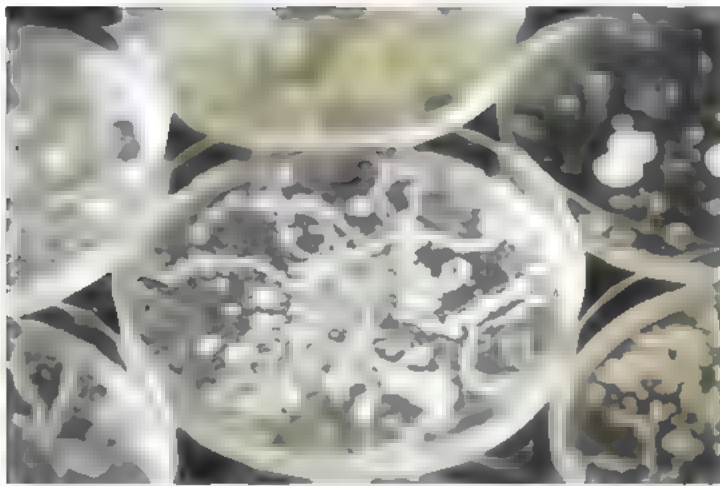
After you have finished, discuss what you have written with peers.

WHAT IS RESEARCH?

Research involves collecting and analyzing data in a systematic way to further your understanding of knowledge by looking at theories, asking questions, forming hypotheses, and reaching conclusions. Research can be carried out to test and prove existing theories and to form new ones.

Why Do Research?

If you are carrying out your own research project, you are looking for answers to a specific problem or question. If you are reviewing existing literature, you are learning about the current state of your research field: who is studying what, what the main issues of contention are, and how these may relate to your own studies.



Empirical versus Non-Empirical Research

Empirical research involves answering questions and furthering knowledge by observation and experimentation. Non-empirical research seeks answers to questions and tests theory by analyzing existing knowledge.

Quantitative versus Qualitative Research

There is an important division in academic research between quantitative and qualitative research.

A researcher's decision to employ one type of research or the other can depend on a number of factors:

- the research questions
- the phenomenon, group, or population under investigation
- personal philosophical beliefs about knowledge, behaviour, and society

Quantitative Research

In quantitative research, the researcher normally builds on existing theory by forming a hypothesis, that is, a prediction that will be tested to see whether a theory is valid. Quantitative researchers usually study large populations and use random sampling of study participants. Random sampling is the use of mathematical formulas to select participants in a way that makes them representative of a broader population, for example, by age, gender, race, class, and socio economic status. Data are often gathered via surveys and experiments. In quantitative research, data are analyzed numerically and usually presented in tables and graphs.

In quantitative experimental research, it is common practice to divide participants randomly between study and control groups. In medical research, for example, the study group would receive a new treatment, while the control group would receive a placebo, which is a substance with no medical effect. Such experiments

In English, *data* can act as a subject to both singular and plural verbs. It is possible to write "the data is" or "the data are."

are described as “blind” if participants in each group do not know whether they are receiving medicine or a placebo, and “double-blind” if neither the researchers nor the participants know.

The following are three important concepts in quantitative research:

- **Correlation:** Quantitative researchers create statistical representations of the data and look for correlations. Drawing a correlation means finding a link. For example, in early investigations of the negative health effects of smoking, researchers were able to draw a correlation between smoking and cancer. When further study proved this correlation, cigarette manufacturers began to write warnings on their packaging, such as “Smoking can cause cancer.”
- **Causality:** When quantitative researchers find a correlation between *a* and *b*, this does not mean that they can claim causality. In other words, they cannot state that *a* causes *b*. In order to claim causality, they need to eliminate variable factors. In the early research into smoking-related diseases, the variables were any factors, other than smoking tobacco, that may have caused cancer in the smokers being studied, for example, age, gender, diet, lifestyle, and socioeconomic status. Only through further investigation and analysis were researchers able to establish causality and claim that smoking *caused* cancer in the people they studied.
- **Generalizability:** Generalizability means that the research findings can be applied to the broader general population. For researchers to claim that their findings are generalizable, they need to replicate their studies. Replication involves repeating the same research procedure with different groups. If the results are the same, then the findings become generalizable. After the early research into smoking-related illnesses was replicated and the same findings emerged, cigarette manufacturers around the world began to change the warning on their packaging to “Smoking causes cancer.”

Qualitative Research

In qualitative studies, researchers do not always build on existing theory by testing a hypothesis; the tendency to focus on smaller populations makes hypothesis testing less relevant and less feasible. Accordingly, qualitative researchers are unlikely to use random sampling to get a representative group of participants. Data are commonly gathered via interviews and observation. While qualitative researchers



may sometimes suggest correlations in their findings, they do not aim for causality (by eliminating variable factors) or generalizability (by replicating the study).

In qualitative research, data are coded (organized into groups and categories) and analyzed through detailed written description rather than numerically.

Mixed-Method Research

It is common for researchers to combine quantitative and qualitative research. For example, a researcher may carry out observations and interviews with a small group of participants in the exploratory phase of a research project and then follow up this stage with surveys or experiments with larger groups. Mixed-method researchers may also work in the opposite direction, for example, by carrying out surveys or experiments with a large group of participants and then doing follow-up interviews with a smaller group to expand on initial findings in more detail.

TASK 2 UNDERSTAND STATEMENTS ABOUT QUANTITATIVE AND QUALITATIVE RESEARCH

Read the statements below about quantitative and qualitative research and answer the questions that follow.

1. The researchers suggested that the use of hand-held devices while driving may have been linked to the increase in fatal road accidents.

Which did the researchers establish in their findings: causality or a possible correlation?

2. Swiss psychologist Jean Piaget's studies of brothers and sisters in the 1920s were successfully replicated several times. It is now accepted that young children conceptualize brother-and-sister relations in three important stages (Elkind, 1962).

Does this statement illustrate generalizability? Why or why not?

3. After eliminating 10 key variable factors ranging from age to social class, the researchers concluded that a diet high in sugar caused chronic illness in 72% of the participants.

Does the statement illustrate causality or generalizability? Why or why not?

4. After eliminating 10 key variable factors ranging from age to social class, and replicating the procedure with different groups over a 15-year period, the researchers concluded that a diet high in sugar causes chronic illness.

How does the statement show that the researchers moved from causality to generalizability?

THE RESEARCH PROCESS

10 STAGES OF THE RESEARCH PROCESS

When you read about research while reviewing literature, or if you write about your own research, it is important to understand and evaluate the research process. Carrying out effective research usually involves some or all of the following 10 stages, although not always in this order.

Stage 1: Find a Research Problem or Question

In the planning stages, researchers focus on a question or find a problem. They often justify their choice of question or problem, explaining why it is interesting, relevant, and important.

Stage 2: State the Purpose and/or Goals

Researchers should also state why they are doing the research, explaining what they want to find out and what they want to achieve.

Stage 3: Review Relevant Literature

The purpose of the literature review is to analyze theories that are relevant to the upcoming research data. In order to show a clear understanding of a specific field, researchers need to critically engage with relevant literature by assessing the strengths and weaknesses of the studies reviewed. To do this, they evaluate the methodology, analysis, and findings of the studies. If possible, they highlight a gap in the literature and attempt to address that gap with their own research.

Stage 4: Adopt a Theoretical Position

After critically engaging with relevant literature and finalizing the research problem or question, researchers develop and adopt a theoretical position. This position usually involves accepting or applying a specific theory or framework, or a combination of theories and frameworks.

Stage 5: State a Hypothesis

Researchers often state a hypothesis, which is a prediction that will be tested in the study. As mentioned above, stating a hypothesis is less common in qualitative research.

Stage 6: Discuss Methodology and Select Methods

The term *methodology* refers to a discussion of possible research methods. Research methods are the different tools that are used to collect data, such as surveys, experiments, interviews, and observation. Researchers choose specific methods to address the problem or answer the research question. Before selecting the methods, it is necessary to review those used in other related studies, assessing their strengths, weaknesses, relevance, and applicability.

Stage 7: Collect Data

Next, researchers follow through with the data-gathering methods chosen during the methodology stage. They try to stick as closely as possible to these methods and take note of any deviations from the original plan.



Stage 8: Code and Analyze the Data

The ways that researchers code and analyze their data will depend on whether the research is quantitative or qualitative. Nonetheless, in both cases, they are looking for answers to questions, and solutions to problems. Quantitative and qualitative researchers typically code data—that is, they organize the data into groups and categories—and look for emerging themes. Quantitative researchers often form themes and categories by using statistical analysis software such as SPSS (Statistical Package for the Social Sciences) and represent

their findings in tables, graphs, figures, illustrations, and written description. Qualitative researchers may use coding software such as NVivo to find categories and emerging themes in their data; they usually present their findings in detailed written form, with fewer tables and figures.

Stage 9: Present and Evaluate Results and Conclusions

After analyzing data, researchers present and evaluate their results. This involves clearly addressing the original research problem and answering any research questions. Researchers should also assess whether their findings are valid (put simply, whether they are scientifically solid and convincing), recognize the limitations of their study, and consider future research directions.

Stage 10: Disseminate the Research

The final stage of the research process is to disseminate the results by submitting an essay or a report, presenting it to peers in class or at a conference, and publishing it if possible.

TASK 3 IDENTIFY THE RESEARCH PROCESS IN AN ABSTRACT

In the following abstract from an article on homeopathic medicine, the paragraph headings have been removed and replaced with lines.

1. Match each of the following paragraph headings to the correct part of the abstract. Write the heading on the appropriate line.

Background — Conclusion — Keywords — Research Methods — Results

Abstract

a) _____

Homeopathic medicine is a branch of integrative medicine that has been gaining increasing popularity. However, its clinical application remains controversial.

To improve the understanding of homeopathy, observational studies—which monitor the effects of homeopathy in real-life clinical settings—are a helpful **adjunct to randomized controlled trials**.

The goal of this controlled observational study was to investigate the role of the homeopathic medicine in preventing **respiratory tract infections** (RTIs).

b) _____

This **retrospective** analysis of patients' medical records focused on a single centre from 2002 to 2011, and examined 459 patients, out of whom 248 were treated with homeopathic medicine (specific extract of duck liver and heart) and 211 were not treated. All patients were followed-up for at least 1 year, and up to a maximum of 10 years.

c) _____

A significant reduction in the frequency of **onset** of RTIs was found in both the homeopathic medicine and untreated groups. The reduction in the **mean number** of RTI episodes during the period of observation vs. the year before inclusion in the study was significantly greater in the homeopathic-treated group than in untreated patients (4.76 ± 1.45 vs. 3.36 ± 1.30 ; $p = 0.001$). The beneficial effect of the homeopathic medicine was not significantly related to gender, age, smoking habits or **concomitant** respiratory diseases when compared to the effect observed in untreated patients.

d) _____

These results suggest that homeopathic medicine may have a positive effect in preventing RTIs. However, randomized studies are needed before any firm conclusion can be reached.

e) _____

Comparative study, Integrative therapies, Homeopathy, Observational study, Oscillococcinum, Respiratory tract infections

Beghi, G. M., & Morselli Labate, A. M. (2016). Does homeopathic medicine have a preventive effect on respiratory tract infections? A real life observational study *Multidisciplinary Respiratory Medicine*, 11(12), 1. doi:10.1186/s40248-016-0049-0

adjunct: addition

randomized controlled trials: experiments in which one group receives treatment and the other does not

respiratory tract infections: infections occurring between the lungs and the nose

retrospective: historical

onset: beginning

mean number: average

concomitant: happening at the same time

2. Underline the words or phrases that bring the reader's focus to the following information in the Background section:
 - a) Why the topic is interesting
 - b) The research problem
 - c) The aims of the study
3. In paragraph d), the authors state the following: "These results suggest that homeopathic medicine may have a positive effect in preventing RTIs."
Are the authors suggesting causality or a possible correlation?

VOCABULARY

RESEARCH-RELATED VOCABULARY

The language of research includes many terms that have their origins in Latin and Greek.

TASK 4 DEFINE TERMS RELATED TO RESEARCH

Review the following key terms from the sections titled "What Is Research?" and "10 Stages of the Research Process." Refer back to the texts and write a definition of each term. Compare your answers with a partner.

1. empirical research: _____

2. non-empirical research: _____

3. quantitative research: _____

4. qualitative research: _____

5. phenomenon: _____

6. hypothesis: _____

7. random sampling: _____

8. study group: _____

9. control group: _____

10. placebo: _____

11. blind: _____

12. double-blind: _____

13. correlation: _____

14. eliminate variable factors: _____

15. generalizability: _____

16. replication: _____

CRITICAL THINKING

EVALUATE TYPES OF RESEARCH

TASK 5 DISCUSS

In pairs or small groups, discuss the following questions:

1. What kind of research is most common in your field of study?
2. What do you see as the strengths and weaknesses of quantitative and qualitative research?

THE DOUBLE-BLIND CONTROL TRIAL AND HOMEOPATHY

In homeopathic medicine, people are treated with minute doses of the substances that would lead to illness in healthy people if they were given a larger dose. For example, a homeopathic treatment for people with a pollen allergy (hay fever, or

allergic rhinitis) is to find out which pollen they are allergic to and then administer minute doses of that pollen over a period of months to prevent an allergic reaction when the people breathe in pollen.

Many homeopathic medicines are sold in pharmacies on a separate counter for alternative or complementary treatments. In many cases, they are not sold as approved medicine because their effectiveness in treating illness has not been conclusively proven in a double-blind control trial.



TASK 6 READ AND TAKE NOTES

Read the text below. In the article, author Michael Stolberg refers to the famous Nuremberg salt test of 1835, in which homeopathic medicine was put to the test in a double-blind control trial. As you read, take notes on the main ideas. You will use your notes later to write a 100-word summary of the article.

Inventing the Randomized Double-Blind Trial: The Nuremberg Salt Test of 1835

by Michael Stolberg

Control groups, randomization, blinding, placebos and related methods designed to eliminate bias have become widely recognized as key features of efforts to identify more effective and safer treatments. . . . A very early example of randomization and double blinding was an evaluation of homeopathy conducted in Nuremberg in 1835 by a 'society of truth-loving men' (Stolberg, 1996, 1999; Löhner, 1835).

At the time, homeopathy had **garnered** considerable support among the upper classes in the then Kingdom of Bavaria. In Nuremberg, one of Bavaria's largest and most **affluent** cities, Karl Preu and Johann Jacob Reuter had treated some of the most **prominent** families with homeopathy, including members of the **high aristocracy**. In 1834, annoyed by homeopathy's rising popularity, Friedrich Wilhelm von Hoven, the city's highest ranking public health official and head of the local hospitals, . . . accused homeopathy of lacking any scientific foundation. He suggested that homeopathic drugs were not real medicines at all and alleged homeopathic cures were either due to **dietetic regimens** and the healing powers of nature, or showed the power of belief. He called for an objective, comparative assessment by **impartial**

garnered: gathered

affluent: wealthy, rich

prominent: leading

high aristocracy: highest social class, often with inherited land and titles

dietetic regimens: planned diets

impartial experts: experts who are not biased

drastic measures: strong or extreme actions

deceived patients: patients who have been given the wrong impression

physician: doctor

lunatics: people with mental illness (pejorative in modern usage)

C30 dilution of salt: measured mixture of a tiny amount of salt and distilled water

The odds were ten to one: There was a 10% chance.

took up: accepted

vials: small glass containers

distilled snow water: snow heated to gas then collected after evaporating

allopathic drugs: non-homeopathic drugs

protocol: design of the experiment

experts. If, as he expected, homeopathic treatment proved ineffective, the government would need to take **drastic measures** to protect the lives of **deceived patients.**

In 1835, . . . Johann Jacob Reuter was the sole remaining **physician** homeopath in the city. He reacted . . . with an ardent defence of homeopathy (Reuter, 1835) and pointed out that even children, **lunatics** and animals had been successfully cured. . . . He challenged von Hoven to try the effects of a **C30 dilution of salt** on himself. **The odds were ten to one**, he claimed, that his opponent would experience some extraordinary sensations as a result and these were nothing compared to the much stronger effects on the sick. Perhaps surprisingly, Reuter's opponents **took up** his challenge. . . .

Following a widely publicized invitation to anyone who was interested, more than 120 citizens met in a local tavern. The minimum number needed to proceed had been fixed at 50. The design of the proposed trial was explained in detail. In front of everyone, 100 **vials** were numbered, thoroughly shuffled and then split up at random into two lots of 50. One lot was filled with **distilled snow water**, the other with ordinary salt in a homeopathic C30-dilution of distilled snow water, prepared just as Reuter had demanded: a grain of salt was dissolved in 100 drops of distilled snow water and the resulting solution was diluted 29 times at a ratio of 1 to 100. Great care was taken to avoid any contamination with **allopathic drugs.** . . .

A list indicating the numbers of the vials with and without the salt dilution, respectively, was made and sealed. The vials were then passed on to a 'commission' which distributed 47 of the vials to those among the audience who had declared their willingness to participate The participants' names and the number of the vial that each had received were written in a second list. . . .

Three weeks later, at a second meeting, the participants were asked to report whether they had experienced anything unusual after ingesting the vial's content. Those who did not come to the meeting were asked to send this information in. Responses were thus obtained from 50 of the 54 participants. Those participants who had perceived something unusual described their symptoms, as required by the **protocol.**

Finally, the sealed lists were opened to see who had received water and who the homeopathic dilution, and a list of results was compiled. . . . The vast majority of those who had received the homeopathic salt dilution had thus not experienced any 'effect'. The investigators concluded that Reuter was **wrong.**

From a modern point of view, the major features of the trial can be summarized as follows:

- (1) The trial design (protocol) was carefully set out and the details of the study were made public in advance.
- (2) The number of participants was relatively large and the differences between the two groups would have been significant if Reuter had been right.

merely: only

fruit of imagination: not real, imagined

self-deception: making yourself believe something that is not true

preconceived opinion: opinion formed before evidence is available

fraud: cheating, dishonesty

(3) Assignment to one group or the other was apparently perfectly randomized.

(4) A control group receiving only placebo was used.

63 (5) The trial was double blind: neither the participants nor those who organized the trial, distributed the vials and documented the effects had any idea whether a vial contained the homeopathic high dilution or merely water.

(6) A rough comparative statistics of the results was compiled.

70 (7) Irregularities were carefully recorded, such as the failure of four participants to report back, and the fact that several vials were distributed only after the first tavern meeting.

The organizers concluded that the symptoms or changes which the homeopaths claimed to observe as an effect of their medicines were the fruit of imagination, self-deception and preconceived opinion if not fraud.

75 In spite of their efforts to achieve perfect blinding and randomization, they seem to have been aware, however, that the homeopaths could come up with solid methodological reasons for not accepting this interpretation. In this specific setting, even randomization and double blinding could not eliminate bias. Most participants seem to have opposed homeopathy, and if they wanted to discredit it, they could do so simply by reporting that they had not experienced anything unusual. . . .

Historically, the value of the trial report thus lies above all in the principles it set out. The organizers called on others and, in particular, on the homeopaths themselves, to perform and repeat similar trials, with different dilutions, and 83 to make the results public. They stressed once more the *punctum saliens*, the crucial element of their design: one must avoid anything that might enable the participants and those responsible for the trial to guess whether the actual medicine was given or not.

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EXTEND YOUR ACADEMIC VOCABULARY

Extend your knowledge of key vocabulary from this chapter.

bias
compile
conduct

foundation
proceed
respective(ly)

significant
stress
thorough(ly)

*Words in bold type are Academic Word List (AWL) entries

My eLab

Practise Chapter 2
vocabulary online

TASK 7 ENGAGE CRITICALLY WITH RESEARCH

When you read about research, you need to engage critically with the text. This kind of critical engagement through reading involves identifying strengths and weaknesses, arguments that do or do not convince you, information that is missing, and the author's opinions. After developing an in-depth understanding of the text, you then need to represent that understanding clearly in your writing.

Show your in-depth understanding of the text by answering the following questions.

1. According to the author, Johann Jacob Reuter provided a strong defence of homeopathy, and to support his argument, he pointed out "that even children, lunatics and animals had been successfully cured." [LINES 23–24]

Are you convinced by Reuter's support for his argument? Why or why not?

2. The following numbers appear in the article between lines 29 and 50. Write what each number refers to.

a) 120 [LINE 30]: _____

b) 50 [LINE 31]: _____

c) 100 [LINE 32]: _____

d) 50 [LINE 33]: _____

e) 47 [LINE 41]: _____

f) 50 [LINE 48]: _____

g) 54 [LINE 48]: _____

3. What information is missing for these numbers to make sense, and what assumptions do you have to make as a reader about the missing information?

4. Despite the trial results, the homeopaths could have argued that randomization (randomly allocating the treatment to the participants) did not eliminate bias: “even randomization and double blinding could not eliminate bias.” [LINES 78–79]

Opponents of homeopathy could sign up for the experiment and discredit it by providing biased responses: “if they wanted to discredit it, they could do so simply by reporting that they had not experienced anything unusual.” [LINES 79–81]

Could random sampling have reduced or eliminated bias? Why or why not?

5. In lines 82 to 83, the author states that “the value of the trial report thus lies above all in the principles it set out.”

What does this imply about the author’s opinion of the experiment and its findings?

EFFECTIVE SENTENCE STRUCTURE

ARTICLES, NOUNS, AND NOUN PHRASES

What Are Nouns and Noun Phrases?

Nouns are words that are used to name things, and noun phrases are phrases that include a noun as the main word.

dictionary (noun)

the dictionary on my shelf (noun phrase)

Countable and Uncountable Nouns

There are two types of nouns: countable and uncountable. Countable nouns can have a plural form; uncountable nouns have no plural form.

I'm looking for a **dictionary**. (singular countable noun)

You can use two **dictionaries**. (plural countable noun)

I did some **research** last week. (uncountable noun)

Rules for Describing Things in English

You can use articles such as *a* and *the*, or no articles, with nouns and noun phrases. You should use different forms depending on whether the noun you are describing is countable or uncountable and whether you are referring to the thing in a general or specific way. The following statements about the Stolberg article illustrate different types of noun phrases, highlighted in bold.

General Noun Phrases (G)

G1. Friedrich Wilhelm von Hoven was looking for **a local tavern** where he could carry out the experiment.

(a + singular countable noun → general meaning: "any tavern")

G2. He thought **homeopathic drugs** were not real medicine.

(plural countable noun with no article → general meaning: "all homeopathic drugs")

G3. **Homeopathy** had become popular among the upper middle classes.

(uncountable noun with no article → general meaning: "all forms of homeopathy")

G4. **The double-blind control trial** has become the standard for testing medicine.

(the + singular countable noun → general meaning: "all double-blind control trials")

Note that the G4 form is the only way to use *the* in general noun phrases and is reserved for inventions, species, and academic analysis of the impact and relevance of things.

Specific Noun Phrases (S)

S1. **The experiment led by von Hoven** showed that homeopathy was not effective.

(the + singular countable noun → specific meaning: "the specific experiment carried out by von Hoven")

S2. **The participants in von Hoven's experiment** each received a vial of liquid.

(the + plural countable noun → specific meaning: "the specific participants in the experiment")

S3. **The randomization of the vial distribution** was insufficient to eliminate bias.

(the + uncountable noun → specific meaning: "the specific randomization in distributing the vials")

S4. Von Hoven set up **an experiment** to test the effectiveness of homeopathy.

(an + singular countable noun → specific meaning: “a specific experiment”)

Note that the S4 form is the only way to use *a/an* in specific noun phrases and is reserved for information being mentioned for the first time. Thereafter, *the* is used as in sentence S1.

TASK 8 IDENTIFY TYPES OF NOUNS AND NOUN PHRASES

1. The sentences below come from the Stolberg article. Indicate whether the nouns or noun phrases in **bold** are countable or uncountable, and whether the author is referring to things in general (any or all members of a group) or specifically (specific member[s] of a group). If a phrase is underlined, focus only on that phrase.

a) **Control groups**, randomization, blinding, **placebos** and **related methods designed to eliminate bias** have become widely recognized as key features of efforts to identify more effective and safer treatments. [LINES 1–3]

☐ countable ☐ uncountable ☐ general ☐ specific

b) **Control groups**, **randomization**, **blinding**, placebos and related methods designed to eliminate **bias** have become widely recognized as key features of efforts to identify more effective and safer treatments. [LINES 1–3]

☐ countable ☐ uncountable ☐ general ☐ specific

c) **A very early example of randomization and double blinding was an evaluation of homeopathy conducted in Nuremberg in 1835.** [LINES 3–5]

☐ countable ☐ uncountable ☐ general ☐ specific

d) At the time, **homeopathy** had garnered considerable support among the upper classes. [LINES 7–8]

☐ countable ☐ uncountable ☐ general ☐ specific

e) He suggested that **homeopathic drugs** were not real medicines at all. [LINES 14–15]

☐ countable ☐ uncountable ☐ general ☐ specific

f) **The design of the proposed trial** was explained in detail. [LINES 31–32]

☐ countable ☐ uncountable ☐ general ☐ specific

g) **A list indicating the numbers of the vials with and without the salt dilution**, respectively, was made and sealed. [LINES 39–40]

☐ countable ☐ uncountable ☐ general ☐ specific

h) **The vials** were then passed on to a ‘commission’ which distributed 47 of the vials to those among the audience who had declared their willingness to participate. [LINES 40–42]

☐ countable ☐ uncountable ☐ general ☐ specific

- i) The vast majority of those who had received **the homeopathic salt dilution** had thus not experienced any 'effect'. [LINES 52–54]
☐ countable ☐ uncountable ☐ general ☐ specific
- j) Historically, **the value of the trial report** thus lies above all in the principles it set out. [LINES 82–83]
☐ countable ☐ uncountable ☐ general ☐ specific
2. The four sentences below are related to the Stolberg article. Look at the phrases in bold in each sentence and categorize them as in Task 1 above.
- a) **A randomized blind control trial** can assess the effectiveness of homeopathy.
☐ countable ☐ uncountable ☐ general ☐ specific
- b) **A randomized blind control trial** was carried out to assess the effectiveness of homeopathy.
☐ countable ☐ uncountable ☐ general ☐ specific
- c) **The double-blind control trial** has been highly effective in the last hundred years.
☐ countable ☐ uncountable ☐ general ☐ specific
- d) **The double-blind control trial** carried out by von Hoven has great historical significance.
☐ countable ☐ uncountable ☐ general ☐ specific

Shared Knowledge in Specific Noun Phrases

In specific noun phrases, the speaker and listener, or writer and reader, can share knowledge about the specific thing(s) being described in two ways: explicitly or implicitly. Consider the two examples below.

Explicitly Shared Knowledge

The participants in von Hoven's experiment each received a vial of liquid.

In this sentence, the specific noun phrase is in bold: *the participants in von Hoven's experiment*. It includes specifying information, which is underlined: *in von Hoven's experiment*.

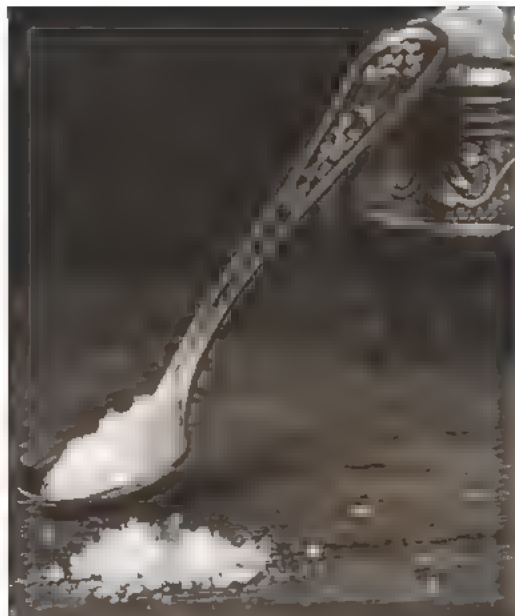
The writer includes the specifying information so that the reader knows exactly which participants are being described. Without the specifying information, the reader might be confused and ask, "Which participants?"

When you include specifying information in this way, knowledge is being shared *explicitly*, which means it is stated clearly in the noun phrase.

Implicitly Understood Knowledge

The salt dilution was made from a grain of salt and snow water.

In this sentence, the specific noun phrase is in bold: *the salt dilution*. The writer does not include specifying information because it is not necessary. The reader



understands which salt solution is being described from the context, provided by previous sentences about the dilution.

When you do not include specifying information in a specific noun phrase, knowledge is being shared *implicitly*, which means it is *not* stated. The reader can understand the specific sense from the context.

TASK 9 IDENTIFY EXPLICITLY AND IMPLICITLY SHARED KNOWLEDGE

Look at the specific noun phrases in bold in the following three sentences from the Stolberg article. Indicate whether shared knowledge is stated explicitly, with specifying information, or understood implicitly. Underline any specifying information.

Do Unit 2: Articles, Nouns, and Noun Phrases in the Handbook, pp. 173–180.

	Explicitly Shared Knowledge	Implicitly Shared Knowledge
1 The design of the proposed trial was explained in detail.		
2 The vials were then passed on to a 'commission' which distributed 47 of the vials to those among the audience who had declared their willingness to participate		
3 Historically, the value of the trial report thus lies above all in the principles it set out.		
4 Historically, the value of the trial report thus lies above all in the principles it set out.		
5 Historically, the value of the trial report thus lies above all in the principles it set out .		

EFFECTIVE WRITING STYLE

WRITING IN AN OBJECTIVE, SCIENTIFIC STYLE: THE PASSIVE VOICE

A common feature of academic writing — most notably, scientific writing — is the use of the passive voice instead of the active voice.

Active Voice

Active voice sentences are formed with a subject followed by a corresponding verb, and sometimes an object.

Preu and Reuter **treated** the patients.



Look at the following three examples of active voice sentences from the Stolberg article. The subjects are underlined and the corresponding verbs, in bold.

Karl Preu and Johann Jacob Reuter **had treated** some of the most prominent families with homeopathy.

snow water, prepared just as Reuter had demanded: a grain of salt was dissolved in 100 drops of distilled snow water and the resulting solution was diluted 29 times at a ratio of 1 to 100. Great care was taken to avoid any contamination with allopathic drugs

A list indicating the numbers of the vials with and without the salt dilution respectively was made, and sealed. The vials were then passed on to a 'commission' which distributed 47 of the vials to those among the audience who had declared their willingness to participate. The participants' names and the number of the vial that each had received were written in a second list.

2. Why do you think the author does not state the agent in any of the passive-voice sentences?

TASK 11 EXPLAIN TYPICAL USE OF THE PASSIVE VOICE

Look at three more examples of passive-voice sentences from the Stolberg article. Each sentence illustrates a typical use of the passive voice to create an objective, scientific style. Answer the questions that follow.

A grain of salt was dissolved in 100 drops of distilled snow water.

Finally, the sealed lists were opened.

Irregularities were carefully recorded.

1. Can the sentences be rewritten using the active voice?

2. Why do you think the author used the passive voice in these sentences instead of the active voice?

Learn more about the passive voice in Unit 7 of the Handbook, p. 210.

TASK 12 REWRITE ACTIVE-VOICE SENTENCES

Now look at four examples of active-voice sentences.

1. Rewrite the following sentence in the passive voice:

Karl Preu and Johann Jacob Reuter **had treated** some of the most prominent families with homeopathy.

2. Rewrite the following sentence in the passive voice:

(Note: You will need to begin the sentence with *It*.)

He **suggested** that homeopathic drugs were not real medicines at all

3. It is not possible to rewrite the following sentence in the passive voice. Why not?

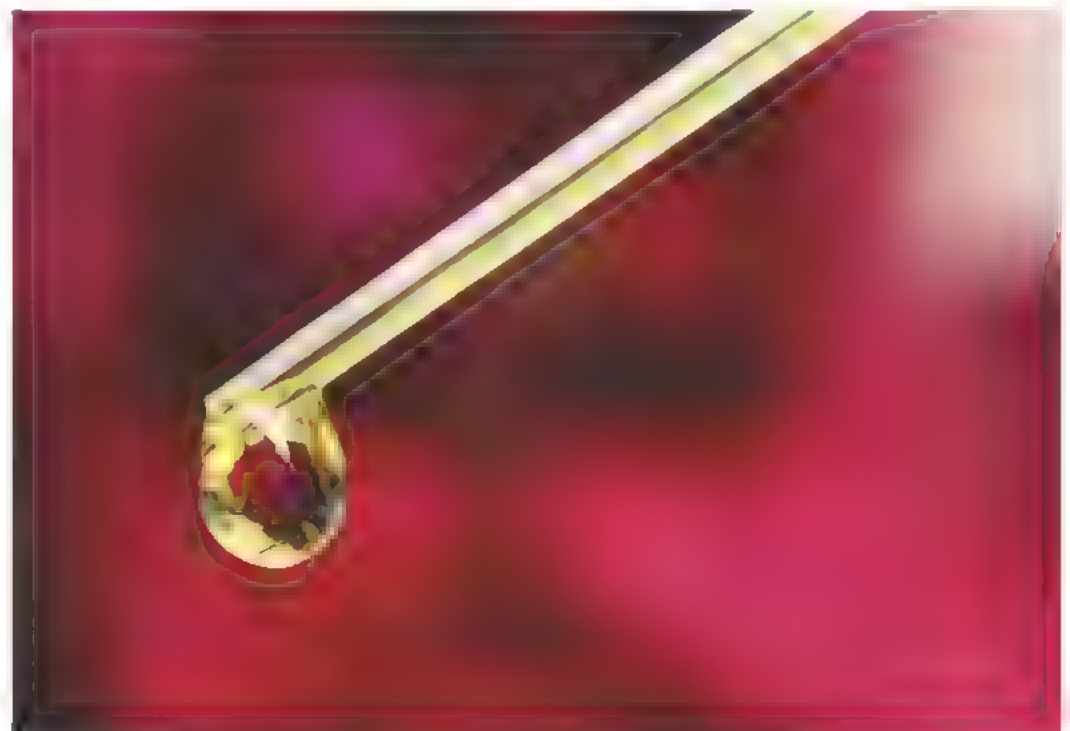
He **reacted** with an ardent defence of homeopathy.

4. Rewrite the following sentence in the passive voice:

Perhaps surprisingly, Reuter's opponents **took up** his challenge.

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A SUMMARY

TASK 13 WRITE A SUMMARY

Write a 100-word summary of the article “Inventing the Randomized Double Blind Trial: The Nuremberg Salt Test of 1835.” Refer to the notes you took for Task 6.

In pairs, read each other’s first draft of the summary. Assess the use of articles in general and specific noun phrases and the use of the passive voice. Then improve your summary by rewriting sentences as required.

Checklist for Revising and Editing

- ☐ Have you included the main ideas of the article?
- ☐ Have you revised noun phrases according to the rules presented in the Effective Sentence Structure section?
- ☐ Have you used passive-voice sentences for an objective, scientific style?
- ☐ Does your paragraph flow better, and have you made it more readable?

BRINGING IN OTHERS' IDEAS: READING

Effective academic writing requires effective reading. The ways you read play a major role in your success as a writer. Or, as suggested by novelist J. K. Rowling, the way you write mirrors what you read.

Academic reading is different from other types of reading. To be an effective academic reader, you should not read passively, but actively and critically. You then need to transmit to your writing what you have learned through your reading. Remember: your reader will apply the same active and critical reading skills to your work!

In this chapter, you will:

- read two articles about self-driving cars
- practise active and critical reading skills
- study reference words and language of attribution
- practise shifting style from semi-formal to academic
- learn how to paraphrase a text effectively
- study clauses and sentences
- learn how to write a summary
- write an academic summary

TASK 1 EXPLORE THROUGH WRITING

What do you read, and how do you read?

Take three minutes to answer the questions. In pairs, compare what you have written.

SKIMMING FOR GENERAL MEANING

What Is the Difference between Active and Critical Reading?

Active reading is the opposite of passive reading. When you read passively, you wait for the ideas to come to you while you read, for example, when you are reading a book for pleasure, not for a specific academic task such as writing an essay. When you read actively, you seek out the information you need for your task. Active reading includes the following:

- skimming a text for general meaning
- scanning a text for specific information
- highlighting key information
- taking notes as you read

Critical reading involves engaging with the ideas in a text, looking at the text from different angles, and gaining an in-depth understanding of it. The process requires several skills:

- assessing whether a source is reliable
- distinguishing between facts and opinions
- recognizing multiple opinions in a text
- inferring meaning when it is not stated clearly
- agreeing and disagreeing with what you read
- considering the relevance of a text to your task
- considering what is missing from a text

Reading around a Text

When you are researching a topic and looking for relevant material to support your writing, you will not have time to read every text you find. Therefore, it is helpful to *read around a text* to see quickly whether it will be useful or not. When you read around a text, focus on finding the following information:

- What is the title? (The title indicates the general topic.)
- What is the subtitle? (The subtitle indicates the specific focus.)
- Who is the author? (Is the author well known in the field?)
- Is there relevant information in the abstract? (In journal articles, the abstract summarizes the article.)
- When was the text published? (Is it up to date?)
- Who published it? (Is the publisher recognized in the field?)
- Are there any images? (Images give clues about the focus and seriousness of an article.)



TASK 2 READ AROUND A TEXT

Take four minutes to read around the two articles on the topic of self-driving cars on pages 52 and 59. Find and write the following:

1. Article 1 (page 52)

Title: _____

Subtitle: _____
 Author(s): _____
 Publication date: _____
 Who published it? _____
 Image(s): _____

2. Article 2 (page 59)

Title: _____

 Subtitle: _____
 Author(s): _____
 Publication date: _____
 Who published it? _____
 Image(s): _____

Skimming a Text

After you read around a text and decide that it may be useful for your assignment, instead of reading the text from start to finish, a more efficient next step is to skim the text. When you skim a text, you read it at surface level for gist, to find out the general idea. You do not read in depth. Skimming a text is helpful when you are searching for and reviewing literature and need to see whether an article or book will be useful for your writing task.

One way to skim a text is to locate the main idea of each paragraph in the article. When you find the main idea, rather than continuing to read the whole paragraph, you should move on to the next paragraph and do the same. As you read, take notes on the main ideas so you can locate information more quickly when you return to the article later.

TASK 3 SKIM A TEXT

Take five minutes to skim the following article. As you read, write the topic of each paragraph in the margin.

To Delegate or Not to Delegate: A Review of Control Frameworks for Autonomous Cars

by Dale Richards and Alex Stedmon

1. Introduction

[1] With increasingly congested road networks the existing road infrastructure is insufficient at meeting the growing and future demands that will be placed on it. Alongside this is a strong desire to improve efficiency and safety. At the centre of accident causality, human error remains a primary concern and advances in autonomous systems are **hailed** as the **harbinger** of a technology that can potentially reduce road fatalities in the future. In the scope of this paper, the term *autonomous system* will be defined as the quality of a technology that is able to perceive information from the environment and its ability to act upon it without human intervention. With the advent of autonomous systems, what better way to reduce human error than by removing the human driver? The **impetus** behind an initiative such as this is directly related to the advances in technology that can assist in the management of the traffic **infrastructure** such as intelligent transport systems (ITS) or in-vehicle driver assistance systems such as advanced driver assistance systems (ADAS).

[2] Several states in the United States (i.e. Nevada, Florida, Michigan and California) have reflected this growing appetite by passing legislation that allows the introduction of autonomous vehicles onto public highways. If we look across the current range of autonomous cars (Google, Toyota, Nissan, BMW, to name but a few) we can see they are all actively researching the integration of autonomous decision-making technologies. Although there are differences across these manufacturers in terms of their approach to integrating autonomous systems, they all have one thing in common: the driver who is **ultimately** responsible for the vehicle.

[3] With the onset of smaller and cheaper sensors we have seen a migration of such technology transfer from other domains into the automotive community. For example, the development of Light Radar (LiDAR) was initially designed for uses in analysing **meteorological** conditions (specifically cloud density). Modern LiDAR systems have been used in unmanned ground vehicles for detecting obstacles whilst navigating. Perhaps the best known use of this within the automotive domain is the Google 'Chauffeur' car with its recognisable spinning LiDAR sensor mounted on the roof. At the moment this technology is expensive but there are already initiatives to produce a more affordable and mainstream version of this technology that could be integrated into other cars. LiDAR is **but one of** the many different sensor technologies available that could be integrated within an intelligent automotive system. Within current ADAS functions, **ultrasound** technology is predominantly used for parking and proximity/separation such as adaptive cruise control (ACC), collision warning systems (CWS) and driver awareness functions such as blindspot and intersection warning. . . .

hailed: welcomed or acclaimed with enthusiasm

harbinger: forerunner, signal of what is to come

impetus: force or motivation behind something

infrastructure: public facilities such as roads, bridges, communications

ultimately: basically, in the end

meteorological: related to weather

but one of: only one of

ultrasound: producing images with sound that humans cannot hear

delegating: giving responsibility or a task to someone/something else

predicates: is based on
in-the-loop: connected, informed

misleadingly: giving the wrong impression or idea

facilitate: make easier

[4] With these technologies employed to assist the driver, if we assume that ADAS functions such as intelligent collision warning/avoidance are integrated into the wider traffic network, how might these forms of automation actually support drivers? There would appear to be two key ways in which the autonomous system could interact with the user. For example, an autonomous car will be able to respond to an event or situation that is perceived by the system as a potential threat (using on board sensors) and either advise the driver on the appropriate action to take and place authority on the driver to respond; or the car will be authorised to take action on behalf of the driver in order to avoid an accident. Both cases highlight the need for a framework of delegating authority between the user and the system so that future solutions are developed with a common user-centred perspective.

2. Automation and Human Performance

[5] The implication of incorporating an element of autonomy within a system predicates the delegation of authority, by the user, to the system. That is, the user who traditionally is seen as being in control of the system and 'in-the-loop' (Wiener and Curry, 1980) accepts that the system is performing certain functions either without their full knowledge (e.g. a 'blackbox' scenario) or whilst they adopt a supervisory role. However, this can lead to 'out-of-loop' situations where the operator is not fully engaged in the task and may have diverted their attention to other activities but then be faced with taking back control at short notice and without fully understanding the current situation.

[6] A certain degree of transparency must exist, which Norman (1990) argues, is the operator's ability to understand the automated systems and 'see through' the system's processes. Thus, the lower the transparency, the more removed the human is from the information processing which might have serious implications for situation awareness (SA). . . .

3. Frameworks for Delegating Control Authority

[7] Autonomous cars are sometimes, rather misleadingly, referred to as 'driverless' vehicles. It is not about taking control from the driver, but allowing them to delegate authority to the system in a manner that they understand and feel comfortable with. To facilitate the interaction between the user and the system a framework is required that defines the delegation of authority under a variety of different circumstances.

[8] The traditional model for defining the levels of automation was put forward by Sheridan and Verplank (1978), and later revised by Parasuraman et al. (2000). This framework . . . provides ten levels of automation distributed between the user and the system. These range from the system making all decisions on behalf of the user (Level 10) to the human making all decisions (Level 1). . . .

4. Control Delegation in Autonomous Vehicles

[9] . . . It can be argued that with increasing levels of automation or decision

cognitively: mentally

vigilance: careful attention

pertaining to: relating to

detrimental: damaging

susceptibility: tendency

perceptual thresholds:
levels at which people
become aware of things

degrade: break down

failure track: gradual
process of breakdown

future proofed: developed
to minimize future
problems

graceful degradation:
continued but limited
function when a system fails

vulnerable to: exposed to,
at risk of

mature: developed

complacency: lack
of awareness

support available to the user, it is equally important to provide the user with
a better understanding of what the system is doing (Bainbridge, 1983;
Norman, 1990). The active monitoring of a highly automated system is
cognitively demanding (Tsang and Johnson, 1989) and requires a high degree
of vigilance on behalf of the user (Molloy and Parasuraman, 1996). In order
to reduce the likelihood of human error it is important that the individual
attains a sufficient level of SA pertaining to their situation and the context
in which the system they are interacting with operates (Endsley, 1995;
Endsley and Jones, 2012). Mental workload has also been cited as having a
detrimental effect on human performance and safety (Tsang and Vidulich,
2006). The potential for a lack of vigilance has been linked to a number of
accidents (Warm et al., 2008). Humans are poor at monitoring systems due
to susceptibility of cognitive processing to switch off and miss stimuli where
perceptual thresholds are low (Kantowitz and Sorkin, 1987). . . .

[10] A further aspect of a reliance on automation is that the reliability of
such systems will degrade over time just as current mechanical ones do.
The design of the failure track is presumably part of the process for the
systems engineers and it is important to consider the autonomy lifecycles so
that systems are future proofed and potentially incorporate principles of
graceful degradation so that the entire system is not vulnerable to complete
failure.

5. Discussion

[11] . . . The technology that will facilitate the introduction of the autonomous
car has entered a phase of demonstration, with the Technology Readiness
Levels (TRL) getting closer to market introduction. What is less mature is
the associated understanding of how drivers will adapt to this new style of
driving. . . . On the occasion that the human is happy to delegate control to
the system, thought is needed as to how to keep the user 'in the loop' in terms
of maintaining SA. Good SA is essential not just for monitoring the system
in terms of ensuring it is safe, but more so for predicate events that suddenly
occur when there is a system failure or the system recommends or hands
control back to the user. In such instances human trust in the system may
very well lead to a dangerous degree of complacency (Bainbridge, 1983).
As illustrated in other domains this is all too common and can lead to tragic
consequences. This is why, for the foreseeable future, a driver of an autono-
mous car will be legally required to be paying attention to the road at all
times (as is legally required in some of the US States that have already passed
legislation). . . .

6. Conclusion

[12] The use of an autonomous car is not about taking control away from the
driver, but allowing the driver to delegate authority to the system. This
changes the nature of the driving role with the driver adopting a more super-
visory approach to monitoring an intelligent system. In order for this inter-
action to be effective it is important to design the system that allows the user

determine: make something happen

150 to understand not only what the system is currently doing (and plans to do) but also what the system is not able to do. This builds a partnership of trust between the user and the system that recognises not just human limitations but combines these with systemic limitations in order to **determine** a user-centred socio-technical system for autonomous driving.

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Excerpts from Richards, D., & Stedmon, A. (2016). To delegate or not to delegate: A review of control frameworks for autonomous cars. *Applied Ergonomics*, 53(2016), 383-388. doi:10.1016/j.apergo.2015.10.011

TASK 4 MATCH YOUR NOTES

Look again at the 12 paragraph topics you wrote for Task 3. Match them to the topics listed below. Write the paragraph number on the line beside the matching topic. After you have finished, read the complete text.

- _____ a) Users delegating authority to systems: problems
- _____ b) Reliability and degradation
- _____ c) Technology to reduce human error and improve safety
- _____ d) How best to delegate authority
- _____ e) Integrating autonomous decision-making technologies

- _____ **f)** Transparency and situation awareness
- _____ **g)** How autonomous systems can support drivers
- _____ **h)** 10 levels of automation
- _____ **i)** Understanding and monitoring a system
- _____ **j)** Building a partnership between user and system
- _____ **k)** Human adaptation: trust and complacency
- _____ **l)** Sensor technologies borrowed from other fields

VOCABULARY

ANAPHORIC AND CATAPHORIC REFERENCE WORDS

A common feature of academic texts is the use of reference words such as *it* and *this* to refer to information and ideas in the text. Anaphoric reference words refer back to information and ideas already mentioned. Cataphoric reference words refer forward to ideas that are coming in the text.

Look at the reference words (in bold) in the examples below from the Richards and Stedmon article.

In the scope of this paper, the term *autonomous system* will be defined as the quality of a technology that is able to perceive information from the environment and its ability to act upon **it** without human intervention. [LINES 7–10]

It is an anaphoric reference word referring back to “information from the environment.” In this case, the use of *it* is effective and economical because the authors do not have to repeat the words “information from the environment,” which would be wordy and repetitive.

... **it** is important that the individual attains a sufficient level of SA pertaining to their situation and the context in which the system they are interacting with operates. [LINES 89–91]

It refers forward to the idea that the individual should attain “a sufficient level of SA pertaining to their situation and the context in which the system they are interacting with operates.” The use of *it* in a sentence with cataphoric reference adds a scientific tone to the writing.

TASK 5 IDENTIFY AND UNDERSTAND REFERENCE WORDS

In the following sentences, indicate whether the reference words *it*, *this*, and *these* are anaphoric or cataphoric. Then look at the surrounding text and write the information or idea the word refers to.

1. Alongside **this** is a strong desire to improve efficiency and safety. [LINES 4–5]
☐ anaphoric ☐ cataphoric
 Reference: _____

2. **These** range from the system making all decisions on behalf of the user (Level 10) to the human making all decisions (Level 1). [LINES 79–81]
☐ anaphoric ☐ cataphoric
 Reference: _____

3. **It** can be argued that with increasing levels of automation or decision support available to the user, it is equally important to provide the user with a better understanding of what the system is doing. [LINES 83–85]
☐ anaphoric ☐ cataphoric
 Reference: _____

4. The design of the failure track is presumably part of the process for the systems engineers and **it** is important to consider the autonomy lifecycles so that systems are future proofed. [LINES 100–102]
☐ anaphoric ☐ cataphoric
 Reference: _____

5. As illustrated in other domains **this** is all too common and can lead to tragic consequences. [LINES 117–118]
☐ anaphoric ☐ cataphoric
 Reference: _____

ACTIVE AND CRITICAL READING

SCANNING FOR SPECIFIC INFORMATION

When you scan a text, you do not read the whole text; you look only for specific information, usually for a related writing task. An effective technique for scanning a text is to look for keywords, synonyms (words with similar or the same meaning), and associated words (words that are related to the specific information you are looking for).

For example, if you were scanning the Richards and Stedmon article for information on how ADAS technology might assist drivers, you could look for the following:

- keywords: ADAS, technology, assist, drivers
- synonyms: advanced, technical development, aid, help, road users
- associated words: driverless, integration, support, transportation

With these words in mind, you could find the specific information on lines 42 to 45: “if we assume that ADAS functions such as intelligent collision warning/avoidance are integrated into the wider traffic network, how might these forms of automation actually support drivers?”

This sentence acts as an introduction to the information that you require: the ways ADAS can help drivers.

TASK 6 SCAN A TEXT FOR INFORMATION

Now take five minutes to scan the article on the next pages from the *Washington Post*. Do not read the complete article; look only for the following information. Make note of the answers as you read.

1. What will the real weather challenge be for autonomous vehicles? [para. 2]

2. What special skill does the forward radar have? [para. 4]

3. What two risk factors are mentioned as possibly preventing the sensitive systems of an autonomous vehicle from working? [para. 7]

4. When might people realize that it is safer to disobey the rules of the road? [para. 12]

5. When will the first all-weather driverless vehicles be built? [para. 16]



Driverless Cars Work Great in Sunny California. But How About in a Blizzard?

by Brian Fung

[1] As cities along the east coast finally finish digging their way out of last weekend's historic snowstorm, drivers braving the streets have to contend with icy conditions, snowbanks along the curb and other hazards they would probably rather avoid if they could help it.

[2] Enter the self-driving car, which someday may alleviate that anxiety. But although the technology appears to work well in dry, sunny weather, those are just the best-case scenarios. The real test for autonomous vehicles will be when the roads are wet or even icy and invisible to the computerized eye. What then?



[3] Researchers who work on driverless cars say we're still five to 10 years away from developing an all-weather self-driving capability. That's because there are a host of challenges when it comes to driving in bad weather that humans have learned to overcome—but computers have not. This issue has taken on even greater urgency given that an initial wave of high-tech cars, such as Tesla's sedans that can go on autopilot, are already on the road.

[4] "The forward radar is very good at detecting fast moving large objects and can actually see through fog, rain, snow, and dust," said Tesla chief executive Elon Musk in November. "So, the forward radar is the car's super human feature. It can see through things a person cannot."

[5] For the most part, self-driving cars being tested by Google and other carmakers are running their experiments in relatively safe environments in California and Texas, where the weather is generally fine. But last month, a company spokesman said, Google sent its self-driving cars to snowy Lake Tahoe to collect important test data. Google's car is equipped with special wiper blades that help keep the car's camera lenses clear in bad weather. And if it's in the middle of a particularly nasty storm, the vehicle can automatically pull over and wait it out, according to a recent company report.

[6] "Our cars can determine the severity of the rain," the report reads, "and just like human drivers they drive more cautiously in wet conditions when roads are slippery and visibility is poor."

[7] Like real people, being unable to see can be a huge problem for a machine that relies on cameras, radar and laser-based sensing systems. In addition to the risk of snow or ice building up on external sensors, even an inch of snow cover on the ground could disrupt an autonomous vehicle's sensitive systems. . . . That's because the sensing systems designed to bounce signals off of distant objects are reflecting off of the snow instead, resulting in what looks like a cloud of angry bees surrounding the car.

[8] “If we can’t see the world around us really well, our ability to estimate where we are falls apart,” said Edwin Olson, an associate professor of computer science at the University of Michigan who’s working with Ford. 47 “The standard approach to figuring out where you are very accurately is to look at the ground—and the ground is the first thing to go when it’s snowing or raining.”

[9] The solution, Olson said, is to train the car’s cameras on its surroundings—to rely on passing buildings, street poles and even trees to determine its 50 location. From there, the car can match those reference points to the map that’s stored in its brain.

[10] But low visibility is just one aspect of the problem.

[11] “In a snowy climate, people aren’t driving in their lanes anymore. They’re driving in the tire tracks of the guy in front of them,” said Ryan Eustice, who 55 directs the University of Michigan’s Perceptual Robotics Lab and has also been working with Ford.

[12] In other words, humans know that it’s sometimes safer to break the rules of the road when it’s snowing than it is to obey them. But how do you teach a machine to defy its own programming?

60 [13] That’s not all. On top of knowing the difference between bad weather and a sensor malfunction—and how to behave “improperly”—autonomous vehicles may also have to communicate with, or even fight, other safety systems in the car in order to drive the way a human would.

65 [14] For example, anti-lock brakes and electronic stability control have helped human drivers avoid crashes for years. But software makers for driverless cars don’t necessarily have control over those features because they are sometimes made by third-party suppliers, said Olson. The result could be that these features kick in when the computer least expects it.

[15] “Stability control systems, those are really going on at very low levels in the vehicle, almost like a reflex,” said Olson. “The autonomous vehicle is almost cognitive, at a much higher level. There’s a real concern that these safety systems—which are great for human drivers—will it just confuse the autonomous control? Getting that interaction right is pretty tricky.”

[16] The fact that we’re still so far from building an all-weather driverless car will probably mean that manufacturers will release their earliest autonomous vehicles only to certain cities at first, or allow drivers to turn on the robotic features under a specific set of conditions. So while driverless cars are definitely coming, don’t expect them to be able to get you through a whiteout anytime soon.

Fung, B. (2016, January 28). Driverless cars work great in sunny California. But how about in a blizzard? *The Washington Post*. Retrieved from <https://www.washingtonpost.com/news/the-switch/wp/2016/01/28/driverless-cars-work-great-in-sunny-california-but-how-about-in-a-blizzard/>

TASK 7 READ CRITICALLY

Now read the full text. When you have finished, answer the questions below. First, write your answers in the spaces provided; then discuss your answers in pairs.

1. Reread paragraphs 3 and 4 of the article. What issue is the author referring to when he writes, "This issue has taken on even greater urgency given that an initial wave of high-tech cars, such as Tesla's sedans that can go on auto-pilot, are already on the road"?

2. The author goes on to quote Tesla chief executive Elon Musk as follows: "The forward radar is very good at detecting fast moving large objects and can actually see through fog, rain, snow, and dust. . . . So, the forward radar is the car's super human feature. It can see through things a person cannot."

Is there a contradiction between the quotation and the statement preceding it?

3. In line 73, Edwin Olson states, "Getting that interaction right is pretty tricky." Which interaction is he describing?

4. In lines 74 to 76, the author writes, "The fact that we're still so far from building an all-weather driverless car will probably mean that manufacturers will release their earliest autonomous vehicles only to certain cities at first." Which cities does he mean when he writes "certain cities"?

EXTEND YOUR ACADEMIC VOCABULARY

Extend your knowledge of key vocabulary from this chapter.

contend with
definitely
determine
detrimental

facilitate
impetus
in addition to
increasingly

necessarily
ultimately

*Words in bold type are AWL entries

My eLab

Practise Chapter 3
vocabulary online

ADAPTING SEMI-FORMAL STYLE FOR ACADEMIC WRITING

In the second article, journalist Brian Fung writes in a semi-formal style that is designed to catch readers' attention and engage them. The style is appropriate for the genre. When you summarize ideas and information from this article in Task 17 (p. 74), you will need to write in a more objective, academic style that matches the genre features of an academic summary.

The following are four stylistic features of Fung's text that would seem informal and/or inappropriate in many forms of academic writing:

1. contractions: using abbreviated forms such as *isn't* instead of *is not*
2. addressing the reader as *you*: using phrases such as *you can see* instead of *people can see* or *it can be seen*
3. starting sentences with *and*, *but*, or *so*: using these simple coordinating linking words instead of conjunctive adverbs (for example, *moreover*, *however*, and *therefore*) or different sentence structures
4. rhetorical questions: asking questions for rhetorical effect (to persuade your reader) but not answering them

Learn more about conjunctive adverbs as linking words in Appendix 1, p. 269.

TASK 8 LOCATE EXAMPLES OF NON-ACADEMIC STYLE

Go back through the Fung article and note any examples you can find of the four stylistic features of non-academic style (ignore non-academic style in direct quotations). Write the examples and line numbers.

1. Contractions:

2. Addressing the reader as *you*:

3. Starting sentences with *and*, *but*, or *so*:

4. Rhetorical questions:

TASK 9 REWRITE SENTENCES IN ACADEMIC STYLE

Rewrite the sentences below from the Fung article to make them more academic and formal. Less formal language is in bold type.

1. The real test for autonomous vehicles will be when the roads are wet or even icy and invisible to the computerized eye. **What then?**

2. From there, the car can match those reference points to the map **that's** stored in its brain. **But** low visibility is just one aspect of the problem.

3. In other words, humans know that **it's** sometimes safer to break the rules of the road when **it's** snowing than it is to obey them. **But how do you teach a machine to defy its own programming?**

4. **So** while driverless cars are definitely coming, **don't** expect them to be able to get **you** through a whiteout anytime soon.

CRITICAL THINKING

GENRE AND STYLE

TASK 10 DISCUSS

1. What do you notice about the genres and writing styles of the two articles?
2. What style characterizes writing in your subject area?

LANGUAGE OF ATTRIBUTION

It is common for academic and journalistic texts to present a range of ideas and opinions from different people, groups, or organizations. When you summarize a text with multiple views, it is important to attribute ideas and opinions to the appropriate sources. You do this by using words and phrases, known as *language of attribution*, to make it clear to your reader who thinks what. If you do not include adequate language of attribution, your reader may confuse your sources, and worse, you could be accused of plagiarism for appropriating others' ideas and presenting them as your own.

TASK 11 ANALYZE A TEXT FOR LANGUAGE OF ATTRIBUTION

1. Read the example paragraph below, which summarizes some of the ideas from the Fung article without any language of attribution. Is it clear to you as a reader who thinks what?

Autonomous vehicles will face their biggest test when they operate in icy and wet winter conditions. In fact, it will take up to 10 years before driverless cars have the ability to drive in all weather conditions. However, the forward radar in Tesla autonomous cars is already able to function properly in fog and snow. At the moment, if the weather is bad during test drives, autonomous cars have the capacity to pull over and wait for a change in weather.

2. Now read the same text with language of attribution. Underline the language of attribution that makes it clear to you who thinks what.

According to *Washington Post* journalist Brian Fung, autonomous vehicles will face their biggest test when they operate in icy and wet winter conditions. Researchers in the field believe that it will take up to 10 years before driverless cars have the ability to drive in all weather conditions. However, Tesla chief executive Elon Musk claims that the forward radar in Tesla autonomous cars is already able to function properly in fog and snow. A recent Google report found that at the moment, if the weather is bad during test drives, its autonomous car has the capacity to pull over and wait for a change in weather.

TASK 12 LOCATE LANGUAGE OF ATTRIBUTION

1. Reread the Fung article and underline any examples of language of attribution.
2. Look at the following two examples of ideas Fung presents without any language of attribution. Who do you attribute these ideas to, and why?

- a) The result could be that these features kick in when the computer least expects it. [LINES 67–68]

- b) The fact that we're still so far from building an all-weather driverless car will probably mean that manufacturers will release their earliest autonomous vehicles only to certain cities at first, or allow drivers to turn on the robotic features under a specific set of conditions. [LINES 74–77]

EFFECTIVE WRITING STYLE

PARAPHRASING

Find detailed rules and formats for APA citation style in Appendix 2.

When you paraphrase a text effectively, you use your own words to rewrite information you have read, changing vocabulary, grammar, and sentence structure to make the writing your own. When the ideas are not your own, you need to indicate clearly who they belong to, using language of attribution. In writing assignments that require APA citation style, make sure to include accurate, correctly formatted in-text citations every time you present someone else's ideas in your writing.

Patchwriting

Patchwriting is different from paraphrasing. Patchwriting occurs when a writer copies text from a source and changes only some of the words and grammar. Patchwriting is unacceptable paraphrasing, a type of plagiarism.

TASK 13 IDENTIFY PARAPHRASING AND PATCHWRITING

In the two paragraphs you are about to read, a writer has attempted to paraphrase an excerpt from the Fung article. One example represents effective paraphrasing: the writer has made sufficient changes to the vocabulary and grammar of the original. The other example represents unacceptable paraphrasing, or patchwriting: the writer has changed only a few words and structures here and there.

Read examples 1 and 2 and decide which is acceptable paraphrasing and which is patchwriting. Underline words and phrases that are copied exactly from the original text to support your answers. Compare your answers with a partner.

Excerpt from the Original Text

Researchers who work on driverless cars say we're still five to 10 years away from developing an all-weather self-driving capability. That's because there are a host of challenges when it comes to driving in bad weather that humans have learned to overcome—but computers have not. This issue has taken on even greater urgency given that an initial wave of high-tech cars, such as Tesla's sedans that can go on autopilot, are already on the road. "The forward radar is very good at detecting fast-moving large objects and can actually see through fog, rain, snow, and dust," said Tesla chief executive Elon Musk in November. "So, the forward radar is the car's superhuman feature. It can see through things a person cannot."

1. According to researchers working on driverless cars, we are still 5 to 10 years away from developing an all-weather self-driving capability because of many challenges when it comes to driving in bad weather that humans have learned to overcome—but computers have not. This issue has become more urgent given that an initial wave of high-tech cars, such as Tesla's sedans that can go on autopilot, are already being driven on roads. Tesla chief executive Elon Musk stated in November that the forward radar is excellent at detecting fast-moving large objects and can actually see through fog, rain, snow, and dust, saying it is the car's superhuman feature.

Example 1: Acceptable paraphrasing or patchwriting? Why or why not?

2. According to researchers of autonomous car technology, it will take perhaps a decade before all-weather self-driving capability is developed as computers have yet to learn to deal with the many challenges that are associated with driving in poor weather conditions. Since the first phase of high-tech vehicles are already being driven on roads—for example, Tesla's sedans that have an autopilot function—this challenge requires urgent attention. According to Elon Musk, however, the Tesla forward radar can detect large fast-moving objects very effectively even in inclement weather; the Tesla chief executive sees the forward radar as "the car's superhuman feature."

Example 2: Acceptable paraphrasing or patchwriting? Why or why not?

Effective Paraphrasing

In Task 13, you highlighted the words and phrases copied directly from the original text in an effective paraphrase. Now study the following paragraphs to learn how the vocabulary, grammar, and sentence structure of the original text were changed.



Vocabulary Changes

According to researchers of **autonomous car technology**, **it will take perhaps a decade** before all weather self-driving capability is developed **as** computers have yet to learn to deal with the **many challenges that are associated with** driving in **poor** weather conditions. **Since** the first phase of high-tech vehicles are already being driven on roads—for example, Tesla's sedans that **have an autopilot function**—this challenge **requires urgent attention**. According to Elon Musk, however, the Tesla forward radar can detect large fast-moving objects very effectively even in **inclement weather**; the Tesla chief executive sees the forward radar **as** “the car’s superhuman feature.”

Grammar Changes

According to researchers of autonomous car technology, **it will take** perhaps a decade before all-weather self-driving capability is developed **as** computers **have yet to learn** to deal with the many challenges that are associated with driving in poor weather conditions. **Since** the first phase of high-tech vehicles **are already being driven on roads**—for example, Tesla's sedans that have an autopilot function—this challenge requires urgent attention. According to Elon Musk, however, the Tesla forward radar **can detect** large fast-moving objects very effectively even in inclement weather; the Tesla chief executive sees the forward radar **as** “the car’s superhuman feature.”

Sentence Structure Changes

According to researchers of autonomous car technology, **it will take** perhaps a decade before all-weather self-driving capability is developed **as** computers **have yet to learn** to deal with the many challenges that are associated with driving in poor weather conditions. **Since the first phase of high-tech vehicles are already being driven on roads**—for example, Tesla's sedans that have an autopilot function—this challenge requires urgent attention. **According to Elon Musk**, however, the Tesla forward radar can detect large fast-moving objects very effectively even in inclement weather; **the Tesla chief executive sees the forward radar as** “the car’s superhuman feature.”

TASK 14 PARAPHRASE SENTENCES

Consider the techniques you have just studied to avoid patchwriting, and paraphrase the following sentences from the Richards and Stedmon article. Remember to keep the meaning as close as possible to the original.

1. There would appear to be two key ways in which the autonomous system could interact with the user.

2. Autonomous cars are sometimes, rather misleadingly, referred to as ‘driverless’ vehicles.

3. A further aspect of a reliance on automation is that the reliability of such systems will degrade over time just as current mechanical ones do.

4. The use of an autonomous car is not about taking control away from the driver, but allowing the driver to delegate authority to the system.

EFFECTIVE SENTENCE STRUCTURE

TWO TYPES OF CLAUSE AND THREE TYPES OF SENTENCE

What Is a Clause?

A clause is a group of words that forms a whole sentence, or part of a sentence. Clauses have a subject and a verb, unlike phrases, which do not. Understanding the difference between independent and dependent clauses is the first step to improving your sentence structure.

Independent Clauses

Independent clauses, sometimes called *main clauses*, have a subject and a corresponding verb. They can stand alone as a sentence and as a complete thought or idea. Below are two examples from the Richards and Stedmon article:

1. In such instances human trust in the system may very well lead to a dangerous degree of complacency.
2. . . . human error remains a primary concern . . .

Example 1 is an independent clause that makes up a complete simple sentence. Example 2 does not make up a complete sentence; it is part of a larger sentence.

Dependent Clauses

Dependent clauses, also called *subordinate clauses*, cannot stand alone as a sentence or as a complete thought or idea. Below are two examples from the Richards and Stedmon article:

1. Although there are differences across these manufacturers in terms of their approach to integrating autonomous systems . . .
2. . . . that could be integrated within an intelligent automotive system.

Example 1 is a dependent clause because the clause begins with the subordinator *although*. Other subordinators that make clauses dependent are linking words such as *while*, *because*, and *unless*.

Learn more about subordinators as linking words in Appendix 1, p. 273.

Learn more about sentence fragments in Unit 9 of the Handbook, p. 225.

Example 2 is a dependent clause because it begins with the relative pronoun *that*. Other relative pronouns that make clauses dependent in this way are *which*, *who*, *when*, *where*, *why*, and *what*. You will study different kinds of relative clauses in Chapter 5.

To make either of the two dependent clauses above into a complete sentence, join the dependent clause with an independent clause to form a complex sentence (see below). If the two clauses are left as they are, they are considered sentence fragments, which are incomplete sentences.

Simple Sentences

A simple sentence is an independent clause that forms a complete sentence. Below is an example from the Richards and Stedmon article. The simple sentence contains one complete idea.

In such instances human trust in the system may very well lead to a dangerous degree of complacency.

Compound Sentences

A compound sentence is made up of two (or more) independent clauses joined by one of the “FANBOYS” coordinators (*for*, *and*, *nor*, *but*, *or*, *yet*, *so*). Below is an example adapted from the Richards and Stedmon article. The independent clauses are underlined, and the coordinator is in bold. The information or ideas in the clauses of a compound sentence usually have equal emphasis.

Human error remains a primary concern, **and** advances in autonomous systems may reduce road fatalities in the future.

Complex Sentences

A complex sentence can be formed by combining one or more dependent and independent clauses. Below are two examples adapted from the Richards and Stedmon article. The dependent clauses are in italics, and the independent clauses are underlined. When the independent clause comes second in a complex sentence (as in sentence 1 below), it usually carries more emphasis than the preceding dependent clause.

1. *Although there are differences across these manufacturers in terms of their approach to integrating autonomous systems,* they all have one thing in common.
2. LIDAR is one of the many different available sensor technologies *that could be integrated within an intelligent automotive system.*

TASK 15 PRACTISE FORMING SIMPLE, COMPOUND, AND COMPLEX SENTENCES

Use what you have learned from the two articles in this chapter to complete the simple, compound, and complex sentences below.

1. Simple sentence: Autonomous cars _____

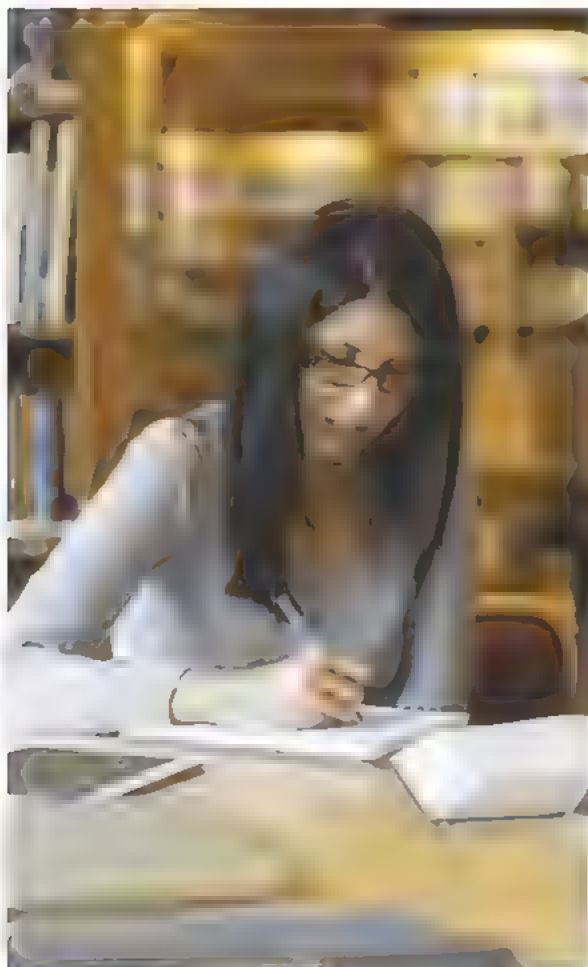
2. Compound sentence: Car manufacturers are working to develop autonomous technology, but self-driving cars _____.
3. Compound sentence: Self-driving cars have no steering wheel, and _____.
4. Complex sentence: If autonomous cars are used in snowy conditions, _____.
5. Complex sentence: Self-driving cars, which _____, are still not ready to deal with certain weather conditions.

Do Unit 3: Clauses and Sentences in the Handbook, pp. 181–188.

ACTIVE AND CRITICAL READING

ANNOTATION

When you annotate a text, you take notes as you read, for example, in the margins of the text. The type of notes you take will depend on your task. If you are making annotations for a summary in which you are not required to give your opinion, you should focus on the ideas that you think are most important in the text.



If your task involves engaging critically with the text by evaluating it and giving your personal opinion, you should also do the following: include notes about ideas you agree or disagree with; assess the extent to which the author backs up ideas with reasons, examples, and evidence; and make note of any questions that arise as you read.

Annotation is a more active and effective note-taking strategy than just highlighting or underlining the main information in a text. First, when you annotate, you can also add your own opinions and questions if necessary. Second, highlighting and underlining alone are passive forms of note taking that do not allow you to internalize the information as effectively as when you write it down. Third, annotating saves time in the long term because it makes it quicker and easier to find information when you come back to a text later.

TASK 16 ANNOTATE AN ARTICLE

Reread the Fung article and make annotations while you read. You will use your annotations later to write a 200 word summary of the article in which you are not required to give your personal opinion.

WRITING SUMMARIES

Summarizing is an important academic writing skill to master. Not only is it necessary to summarize information for most types of writing assignments, it is also common to write summaries as stand-alone assignments.

When you write a summary, remember the following key points about representation and style:

Representation

- Select the main ideas: avoid including minor information.
- Represent ideas accurately: do not change the original meaning or add new ideas.
- Represent ideas in your own words: make sure to paraphrase; avoid too many quotations.
- Represent the whole text: give your reader a sense of the complete original text.
- Attribute: use language of attribution to make it clear who thinks what (e.g., X states that . . .).

Style

- Be concise: get the main information across in as few words as possible; keep to the word limit.
- Write in an objective style: represent ideas rather than give your opinion.
- Use formal language: adopt an academic style even if the article you are summarizing is less formal.

The Summary-Writing Process

The following are five common stages in the process of writing an academic summary.

Stage 1: Skim the Text

Read the text for gist, highlight or underline the main ideas, and write notes in the margin.

Stage 2: Read the Complete Text

Follow up the skimming with a detailed reading of the text. Add to your notes as you read if you find other important information to include in the summary.

Stage 3: Decide on Your Structure

There are different ways to structure the summary. The most common way is to follow the original structure of the text you are summarizing. Alternatively, you may use a thematic structure and organize the summary according to main themes you identify as you read.

Stage 4: Start Writing

Once you have gone through stages 1 to 3, it is time to start writing.

4.1 Write the opening sentences. Include the following information in the first sentence of the summary (if the information is available):

- the title of the article
- the author's name
- the name and date of the publication
- the main topic

For example, if you were summarizing the Richards and Stedmon article, you could introduce the summary in one of the following three ways:

1. **In the article** "To Delegate or Not to Delegate: A Review of Control Frameworks for Autonomous Cars," published in *Applied Ergonomics* in 2016, **Dale Richards and Alex Stedmon analyze** the relationship between autonomous systems and human drivers in cars.
2. **The article** "To Delegate or Not to Delegate: A Review of Control Frameworks for Autonomous Cars," written by Dale Richards and Alex Stedmon and published in *Applied Ergonomics* in 2016, **analyzes** the relationship between autonomous systems and human drivers in cars.
3. **In the article** "To Delegate or Not to Delegate: A Review of Control Frameworks for Autonomous Cars," written by Dale Richards and Alex Stedmon and published in *Applied Ergonomics* in 2016, the relationship between autonomous systems and human drivers in cars **is analyzed**.

Example 1 begins with the preposition phrase *in the article*. Avoid making the mistake of using the preposition phrase as the subject of the verb *analyze*:

"**In the article** 'To Delegate or Not to Delegate: A Review of Control Frameworks for Autonomous Cars,' written by Dale Richards and Alex Stedmon and published in *Applied Ergonomics* in 2016, **analyzes** the relationship between autonomous systems and human drivers in cars" is *incorrect*.

Example 2 begins with the noun phrase *the article*, which acts as a subject to the verb *analyzes*. Example 3 is in the passive voice: *the relationship between autonomous systems and human drivers in cars is analyzed*.

You can choose any of these three approaches; there is no difference in meaning or formality. Make sure to avoid making the mistake shown above for example 1.

After writing the introductory sentence, write a sentence that sums up the general focus and main argument or idea of the article. You can do this by paraphrasing or by using a direct quotation. You can usually locate this information in the notes you have taken in the margin of the first paragraph of the article, as illustrated below:

congestion

improve safety

human error – main concern

With increasingly congested road networks the existing road infrastructure is insufficient at meeting the growing and future demands that will be placed on it. Alongside this is a strong desire to improve efficiency and safety. At the centre of accident causality, human error remains a primary concern and advances in autonomous systems are hailed as the harbinger of a technology that can

*autonomous tech. may
reduce deaths*

replace the driver?

with ITS & ADAS

potentially reduce road fatalities in the future. In the scope of this paper, the term *autonomous system* will be defined as the quality of a technology that is able to perceive information from the environment and its ability to act upon it without human intervention. With the advent of autonomous systems, what better way to reduce human error than by removing the human driver? The impetus behind an initiative such as this is directly related to the advances in technology that can assist in the management of the traffic infrastructure such as intelligent transport systems (ITS) or in-vehicle driver assistance systems such as advanced driver assistance systems (ADAS).

Example of a paraphrase:

Richards and Stedmon begin by highlighting the existence of increased traffic congestion and the need to make roads safer and more efficient. The authors suggest that, as human error plays a major part in many road deaths, replacing the driver with intelligent transport systems (ITS) and advanced driver assistance systems (ADAS) may be the way forward. They use the term *autonomous system* with reference to technology that can perceive environmental information and respond to it without human action.

Example with a direct quotation:

Richards and Stedmon begin by highlighting the existence of increased traffic congestion and the need to make roads safer and more efficient. The authors suggest that, as human error plays a major part in many road deaths, replacing the driver with intelligent transport systems (ITS) and advanced driver assistance systems (ADAS) may be the way forward. They use the term *autonomous system* with reference to "technology that is able to perceive information from the environment and its ability to act upon it without human intervention" (para. 1).

In each of the examples above, the general focus and main idea of the article are stated. If you are using direct quotations in your summary, remember not to use too many.

4.2 Write the rest of the summary. After writing the introductory sentences of the summary, write the remaining sections or paragraphs according to the structure you chose in stage 3. Your decision on the number of paragraphs to write will depend primarily on the required length of the summary but may also depend on the structure you have chosen and the number of main themes you have identified. Make sure to finish the summary with an appropriate concluding sentence so that it does not end too abruptly.

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Find supplementary
reading, writing,
and critical-thinking
activities online

Stage 5: Edit Your Work

After you have finished writing your first draft, edit your work for accuracy and variety of language and for accurate representation of ideas and information. After self-editing, ask a peer to review your work.

AN ACADEMIC SUMMARY

TASK 17 WRITE A SUMMARY

Write a 200 word summary of the Fung article. Follow the five stages you just studied. Do not give your opinion in this summary.

Peer Review

The purpose of peer review is to learn from reading others' writing, and to benefit from peers' positive comments about your writing and from their constructive criticism. When you read a text that is well written, make sure to give positive feedback. However, giving and responding to constructive criticism is also central to the success of peer review. As you read others' writing, look for aspects that could be improved and make your recommendations in a friendly way. When you receive constructive criticism about your writing, decide which recommendations you should follow and which you should set aside.

When you have finished the first draft of your summary in Task 17, use the Summary Review Sheet to first do a review of your own work. Then ask two peers to review your work, also using the Review Sheet. Compare your self-evaluation with the peer review and look for similarities, differences, and areas to improve.

Identify useful criticism and recommendations in the reviews; revise and edit your summary accordingly.



Find the Summary Review Sheet in the online Documents

DESCRIBING PROCESSES AND STATISTICAL DATA

Facts are stubborn things, but statistics are pliable.

Mark Twain

Your ability to persuade your reader and develop an authoritative voice as a writer in your subject area depends on many factors. One of these factors is the ability to show a clear understanding of processes and statistical data. Describing processes requires detailed and accurate description of their stages and steps. Equally, when you write about statistics, you need to write with precision. Your ability to do so will depend not only on the language you use for this purpose but also on your ability to engage critically with statistical data.

In this chapter, you will:

- read and analyze texts on the topics of 3D printing and air pollution
- learn how to describe processes and statistical data
- study vocabulary to describe statistics
- critically engage with statistical data
- study subject-verb agreement
- review strategies for improving writing style
- write a process paragraph based on a diagram illustrating sources of pollution
- write a paragraph based on two bar charts presenting statistical data on air emissions

TASK 1 EXPLORE THROUGH DISCUSSION

Discuss the quotation above, attributed to American novelist Mark Twain. How do you understand the quotation, and do you agree with the main idea?

DESCRIBING PROCESSES

You may be required to study, understand, and describe many different processes on academic courses—for example, how a machine works, the steps of a laboratory experiment, or the stages of a management model. In doing so, your role as a writer is to read, observe, and provide accurate, detailed description. Describing processes is a kind of expository writing, that is, writing that describes, illustrates, and informs.

From Photocopies to Printed Objects

Printing has developed rapidly in recent years due to technological advances. While traditional printing involved transferring two-dimensional images onto paper or other surfaces, using ink or toner in a copier, today three-dimensional objects can be copied by 3D printers. The applications of this new technology range from copying machine components and other metal and plastic objects to the “printing” of body parts in the field of regenerative science.

The following text is an encyclopedia entry on 3D printing, published online by Britannica.com.

3D Printing

3D printing, in full **three-dimensional printing**, in manufacturing, any of several processes for **fabricating** three-dimensional objects by layering two-dimensional **cross sections sequentially**, one on top of another. The process is **analogous** to the **fusing** of ink or toner onto paper in a printer (hence the term *printing*) but is actually the solidifying or **binding** of a liquid or powder at each spot in the horizontal cross section where solid material is desired. In the case of 3D printing, the layering is repeated hundreds or thousands of times until the entire object has been finished throughout its vertical dimension. Frequently, 3D printing is employed in quickly turning out plastic or metal **prototypes** during the design of new parts, though it also can be put to use in making final products for sale to customers. Objects made in 3D printing range from plastic figurines and **mold patterns** to steel machine parts and titanium surgical implants. An entire 3D printing **apparatus** can be enclosed in a cabinet roughly the size of a large kitchen stove or refrigerator.

The term *3D printing* originally designated a specific process **patented** as 3DP by scientists at the Massachusetts Institute of Technology (MIT) in 1993 and licensed to several manufacturers. Today the term is used as a **generic label** for a number of related processes. Central to all of them is computer-aided design, or CAD. Using CAD programs, engineers develop a three-dimensional computer model of the object to be built up. This model is translated into a series of two-dimensional “slices” of the object and then into instructions that tell the printer exactly where to solidify the starting material on each **successive** slice.

three-dimensional: having length, width, and depth

fabricating: producing

cross sections: inside layers, as if cut open

sequentially: in a particular order

analogous: similar

fusing: joining together (often by heating and melting)

binding: fastening (in this case, a solid mass)

prototypes: first models or designs

mold patterns: shaped containers for pouring liquid into to solidify

apparatus: equipment for a specific task

patented: officially registered to give sole rights to one producer

generic label: label referring to a whole group

successive: following one after another

dispensed: given out in controlled portions

array: set of objects arranged in a specific pattern

nozzles: short tubes that control the flow of a substance

unconsolidated: not joined together

mock-ups: models, usually of the same size as the final product

sintering: creating a mass through heat without melting

electron: negatively charged particle in all atoms

alloys: mixtures of two or more metals

polymer: type of chemical compound including many synthetic and natural substances (e.g., plastics, proteins)

ultraviolet: invisible rays of light

additive: made through adding parts or components

subtractive: made through taking away parts or components

foundry: factory where objects are made from melted metal

milling: grinding or crushing solids into powder

25 In most processes the starting material is a fine plastic or metal powder. Typically, the powder is stored in cartridges or beds from which it is **dispensed** in small amounts and spread by a roller or blade in an extremely thin layer (commonly only the thickness of the powder grains, which can be as small as 20 micrometres, or 0.0008 inch) over the bed where the part is being
30 built up. In MIT's 3DP process this layer is passed over by a device similar to the head of an ink jet printer. An **array** of **nozzles** sprays a binding agent in a pattern determined by the computer program, then a fresh layer of powder is spread over the entire build-up area, and the process is repeated. At each repetition the build-up bed is lowered by precisely the thickness of
35 the new layer of powder. When the process is complete, the built-up part, embedded in **unconsolidated** powder, is pulled out, cleaned, and sometimes put through some post-processing finishing steps.

The original 3DP process made mainly rough **mock-ups** out of plastic, ceramic, and even plaster, but later variations employed metal powder as
40 well and produced more-precise and more-durable parts. A related process is called selective laser **sintering** (SLS); here the nozzle head and liquid binder are replaced by precisely guided lasers that heat the powder so that it sinters, or partially melts and fuses, in the desired areas. Typically, SLS works with either plastic powder or a combined metal-binder powder; in the
45 latter case the built-up object may have to be heated in a furnace for further solidification and then machined and polished. These post-processing steps can be minimized in direct metal laser sintering (DMLS), in which a high-power laser fuses a fine metal powder into a more-solid and finished part without the use of binder material. Yet another variation is electron beam
50 melting (EBM); here the laser apparatus is replaced by an **electron** gun, which focuses a powerful electrically charged beam onto the powder under vacuum conditions. The most-advanced DMLS and EBM processes can make final products of advanced steel, titanium, and cobalt-chromium **alloys**.

Many other processes work on the building-up principle of 3DP, SLS, DMLS,
55 and EBM. Some use nozzle arrangements to direct the starting material (either powder or liquid) only to the designated build-up areas, so that the object is not immersed in a bed of the material. On the other hand, in a process known as stereolithography (SLA), a thin layer of **polymer** liquid rather than powder is spread over the build area, and the designated part
60 areas are consolidated by an **ultraviolet** laser beam. The built-up plastic part is retrieved and put through post-processing steps.

All 3D printing processes are so-called **additive** manufacturing, or additive fabrication, processes — ones that build up objects sequentially, as opposed to casting or molding them in a single step (a consolidation process) or cutting
65 and machining them out of a solid block (a **subtractive** process). As such, they are considered to have several advantages over traditional fabrication, chief among them being an absence of the expensive tooling used in **foundry** and **milling** processes; the ability to produce complicated, customized parts on short notice; and the generating of less waste. On the other hand, they
70 also have several disadvantages; these include low production rates, less precision and surface polish than machined parts, a relatively limited range



distortion: change in desired shape or form

make inroads: increase in presence and influence

disparate: different from each other

entities: things existing independently

cell growth medium: liquid or solid substance for growing cells

micropipettes: very narrow glass tubes for transferring liquids in experiments

culture plates: small dishes used to grow cells in experiments

deposition: placing on a specific surface

viability: ability to survive

embryonic stem cells: basic human cells, found in embryos, that can develop into other types of cell

spheroid: shaped like a sphere

of materials that can be processed, and severe limitations on the size of parts that can be made inexpensively and without **distortion**. For this reason, the principal market of 3D printing is in so-called rapid prototyping—that is, the quick production of parts that eventually will be mass produced in traditional manufacturing processes. Nevertheless, commercial 3D printers continue to improve their processes and **make inroads** into markets for final products, and researchers continue to experiment with 3D printing, producing objects as **disparate** as automobile bodies, concrete blocks, and edible food products.

The term *3D bioprinting* is used to describe the application of 3D printing concepts to the production of biological **entities**, such as tissues and organs. Bioprinting is based largely on existing printing technologies, such as ink-jet or laser printing, but makes use of “bioink” (suspensions of living cells and **cell growth medium**), which may be prepared in **micropipettes** or similar tools that serve as printer cartridges. Printing is then controlled via computer, with cells being deposited in specific patterns onto **culture plates** or similar sterile surfaces. Valve-based printing, which enables fine control over cell **deposition** and improved preservation of cell **viability**, has been used to print human **embryonic stem cells** in preprogrammed patterns that facilitate the cells’ aggregation into **spheroid** structures. Such human tissue models generated through 3D bioprinting are of particular use in the field of regenerative medicine.

3D printing. (2016, January 26) In *Encyclopædia Britannica*. Retrieved from <https://www.britannica.com/technology/3D-printing>

TASK 2 ANALYZE THE STYLE

The text above is written in a style that is appropriate for an encyclopedia entry describing a complex process. Which of the following descriptions best match the style of the text? Check all appropriate answers.

1. Subjective language that includes personal opinions ☐
2. Objective language that is mainly descriptive ☐
3. Personal language with pronouns such as *I*, *you*, and *we* ☐
4. Impersonal language, including the passive voice ☐
5. Informal language with few technical terms ☐
6. Formal academic language with many technical terms ☐

Road Transport Emissions: The Process

The following diagram is from a guide written by the European Environment Agency, titled *Explaining Road Transport Emissions*. The guide describes emissions cycles, presents statistical data, and explains the need for regulation to improve local environments.

FIGURE 1 THE EMISSIONS CYCLE



topography: features of an area of land, such as mountains, lakes, and rivers

NO_x: nitrogen oxides

PM_{2.5}: fine particulate matter, e.g., particles from fuel combustion

European Environment Agency. (2016). *Explaining road transport emissions. A non-technical guide*. Copenhagen: EEA.

TASK 3 DESCRIBE A PROCESS

Complete the sentences below to describe the emissions cycle illustrated in Figure 1. Follow the prompts in parentheses, and write the sentences in an appropriate style for this genre of expository writing. Where possible, include the key technical terms from Figure 1: *emissions*, *formation*, *dispersion*, and *concentrations* (as nouns or other parts of speech).

- Human and natural sources cause _____

(Begin with a general statement that links the sources to impacts.)

- The different pollutants gather _____

(Explain that the pollutants change in the air.)

3. The chemical formations are _____

(Explain that sunlight interacts with the pollutants; use the passive voice.)

4. The pollutants are further _____

(Explain the effect of weather and topography on the pollutants; use the passive voice.)

ACTIVE AND CRITICAL READING

ENGAGING WITH DATA

Another important skill in successful academic writing is engaging with data presented in graphs, tables, charts, diagrams, and illustrations. You may study and analyze data in an article you are reading, or you may be writing about data that you have collected for a research project. In either case, it is important to do the following:

- Select key information: concentrate on information that is related to your specific focus.
- Represent information accurately: interpret the statistics correctly and avoid changing their meaning.
- Engage critically with information: think critically as you read and write.

Select Key Information

As you read, highlight or underline information that is related to your specific focus. Be careful and selective; look for the following:

- the purpose of presenting the data
- main trends and general findings in the data
- highs and lows in the data
- specific reference to changes over time

The text below provides statistical data on air pollutants in European countries, and an explanation of the data. Read the text and do the tasks that follow.

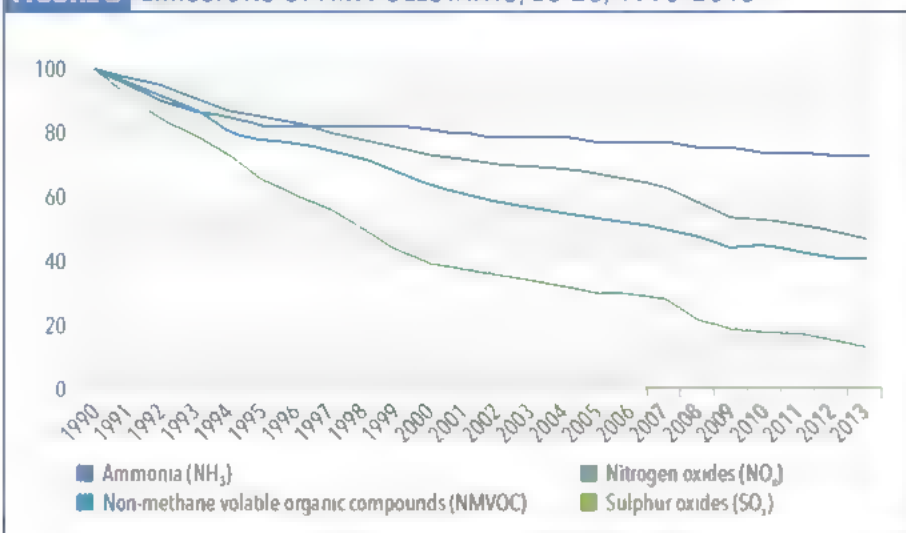
Air Pollution Statistics

[1] Air pollution caused by human activities, including industrial and energy production, the burning of fossil fuels and increased use of certain types of transport, causes serious health problems for hundreds of thousands of Europeans every year [2] Environmental damage such as acidification, **eutrophication**, tropospheric (ground-level) **ozone** and reduced air quality, especially in urban areas, can be a local as well as a **transboundary** problem as air pollutants are transported in the atmosphere and harm human health and the environment elsewhere.

eutrophication: excessive growth of plants such as algae in lakes and rivers due to fertilizer runoff

ozone: toxic O₃ gas in the atmosphere

transboundary: across boundaries

FIGURE-2 EMISSIONS OF AIR POLLUTANTS, EU-28, 1990-2013

Main Statistical Findings

[3] From 1990 to 2013 the EU-28 recorded reductions in emissions of all air pollutants considered in this article (see Figure 2). [4] The biggest fall was reported for sulphur oxides (SO_x) which between 1990 and 2013 decreased by 86.7%, followed by non-methane volatile organic compounds (NMVOCs) which

declined by nearly 60%. [5] Nitrogen oxides (NO_x) stood at 53.5% of their 1990 levels (a decrease of roughly 46.5%); while the smallest decrease was reported for ammonia (NH₃), emissions of which fell only by 27% by 2013.

[6] In 2013 emissions of ammonia (NH₃) in the EU-28 stood at 3 847 870 tonnes, NMVOCs at 7 004 930 tonnes, nitrogen oxides (NO_x) at 8 176 454 tonnes and sulphur oxides (SO_x) at 3 429 764 tonnes (see Table 1). [7] The biggest emitters of ammonia in 2013 in the EU-28 were France with 18.7% of the EU total, followed by Germany with 17.4% and Italy with 10.5%. [8] The NMVOC emissions were highest in Germany, Italy, France and the United Kingdom—each with double-digit shares of the EU total. [9] Nitrogen oxides (NO_x) were emitted the most in Germany (15.5% of the EU total), the United Kingdom (12.5%), and France (12.1%). [10] Regarding sulphur oxides (SO_x), unlike the other pollutants, the biggest emitter was a country from Eastern Europe: Poland with 24.7% of the EU total, followed by Germany with 12.1% and the United Kingdom with 11.5%.

Excerpt from Eurostat (2016, October 19) Air pollution statistics. *Statistics Explained*. Retrieved from http://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/statisticsexplained/index.php/Air_pollution_statistics

TABLE-1 EMISSIONS OF AIR POLLUTANTS BY COUNTRY, IN TONNES, 2013

	NH ₃ (Ammonia)	NO _x (Nitrogen Oxides)	NMVOC (Non-Methane Volatile Organic Compounds)	SO _x (Sulphur Oxides)
EU-28	3 847 870	8 176 454	7 004 930	3 429 764
Belgium	62 233	207 680	137 430	45 558
Bulgaria	30 497	122 573	88 832	193 966
Czech Republic	68 500	181 094	136 397	137 915
Denmark	74 320	123 865	114 431	13 643
Germany	670 849	1 269 182	1 138 241	416 214
Estonia	11 303	29 721	32 931	36 500
Ireland	107 758	79 064	90 001	25 393

	NH ₃ (Ammonia)	NO _x (Nitrogen Oxides)	NM VOC (Non-Methane Volatile Organic Compounds)	SO _x (Sulphur Oxides)
Greece	60 570	238 621	144 765	152 327
Spain	379 308	812 152	550 801	287 128
France	718 133	989 521	758 380	218 785
Croatia	33 729	55 749	46 072	16 378
Italy	402 230	820 574	905 539	145 054
Cyprus	4 756	16 164	6 681	13 766
Latvia	14 707	34 044	87 448	1 502
Lithuania	40 410	46 166	63 394	18 928
Luxembourg	4 573	31 434	7 650	1 580
Hungary	81 243	120 567	120 400	29 309
Malta	1 586	4 872	3 318	5 028
Netherlands	133 801	239 619	149 682	29 926
Austria	66 249	162 317	126 341	17 245
Poland	263 402	798 233	635 776	846 845
Portugal	49 111	161 476	169 630	42 276
Romania	165 147	218 823	322 953	202 676
Slovenia	17 451	42 893	33 324	11 294
Slovakia	25 245	79 582	63 204	53 208
Finland	37 283	144 877	94 558	47 377
Sweden	52 168	125 915	173 756	26 785
United Kingdom	271 309	1 019 674	802 997	393 158
Iceland	5 337	20 775	5 402	72 563
Liechtenstein	174	704	417	28
Norway	27 239	154 437	133 737	17 038
Switzerland	61 690	72 304	84 139	10 207
Turkey	1 089 748	1 047 000	868 184	1 939 104

TASK 4 ANALYZE THE TEXT

Complete the following paragraphs to describe the functions of the sentences in the Eurostat text.

Figure 2

Sentences 1 and 2 set _____.

Sentence 3 presents _____.

Sentence 4 begins with _____, followed by _____.

Sentence 5 shows _____ in descending order.

Table 1

Sentence 6 gives _____.

Sentence 7 shows _____ in descending order.

Sentences 8 to 10 show _____.

TASK 5 LOCATE KEY INFORMATION

Locate the sentences in the Eurostat text where you found the following key information.

	Sentence(s)
1 The purpose of presenting the data	
2 Main trends and general findings in the data	
3 Highs and lows in the data	
4 Specific references to changes over time	

VOCABULARY

DESCRIBING DATA

TASK 6 IDENTIFY USEFUL VOCABULARY

List the phrases used to describe the following aspects of the data in the Eurostat text.

Fixed Percentages

1. Sentence 5: _____

Polluting Emissions Falling

2. Sentence 3: _____

3. Sentence 4: _____

4. Sentence 5: _____

Highest Percentages

5. Sentence 7: _____

6. Sentence 8: _____

7. Sentence 9: _____

8. Sentence 10: _____

Representing Information Accurately

It is important to represent information accurately and precisely when you describe statistical data. You should use appropriate vocabulary to convey the exact nature of the statistics, including increases, decreases, fluctuations, highs, lows, and changes over time. The following words and phrases are commonly used to describe statistical data with precision. Note that the examples are not intended to represent the tables and figures in this chapter.

Increases and Decreases

Part of Speech	Vocabulary	Examples
Increases		
Nouns	<i>increase</i> <i>climb</i> <i>growth</i> <i>rise</i> <i>*jump</i> <i>*surge</i>	There was an increase / a climb / growth / a rise in the figure for total emissions for all countries. There was a notable jump/surge in carbon emissions worldwide from 2000 to 2010.
Verbs	<i>increase</i> <i>climb</i> <i>go up</i> <i>grow</i> <i>rise</i> <i>*jump</i> <i>*rocket</i> <i>*shoot up</i> <i>*soar</i> <i>*surge</i>	The figure for total emissions increased / climbed / went up / grew / rose in three of four countries. The total figure for carbon emissions jumped / rocketed / shot up / soared / surged worldwide from 2000 to 2010.
Decreases		
Nouns	<i>decrease</i> <i>decline</i> <i>drop</i> <i>fall</i> <i>*plunge</i> <i>*slump</i>	There was a decrease/decline/drop/fall in the figure for total emissions for all countries. The plunge/slump in sulphur oxide emissions was particularly encouraging.

Part of Speech	Vocabulary	Examples
Verbs	<i>decrease</i> <i>decline</i> <i>drop</i> <i>fall</i> <i>go down</i> <i>*plummet</i> <i>*plunge</i> <i>*sink</i>	<p>The figure for total emissions decreased / declined / dropped / fell / went down in most countries.</p> <p>The figure for sulphur oxide emissions plummeted/ plunged/sank during the same period.</p>
Increases and Decreases		
Add adjectives	<i>gradual</i> <i>moderate</i> <i>slight</i> <i>slow</i> <i>steady</i> <i>dramatic</i> <i>rapid</i> <i>sharp</i> <i>significant</i> <i>steep</i> <i>sudden</i>	<p>There was a gradual/moderate/slight/slow/ steady increase in CO₂ emissions.</p> <p>There was a gradual/moderate/slight/slow/ steady decrease in ammonia emissions.</p> <p>There was a dramatic/rapid/sharp/significant/ steep/sudden increase in acidification.</p> <p>There was a dramatic/rapid/sharp/significant/ steep/sudden decrease in sulphur oxide emissions.</p>
Add adverbs	<i>gradually</i> <i>moderately</i> <i>slightly</i> <i>slowly</i> <i>steadily</i> <i>dramatically</i> <i>rapidly</i> <i>sharply</i> <i>significantly</i> <i>steeply</i> <i>suddenly</i>	<p>The percentage increased gradually/moderately/ slightly/slowly/steadily.</p> <p>CO₂ emissions decreased gradually/moderately/ slightly/slowly/steadily.</p> <p>Air pollution increased dramatically/rapidly/ sharply/significantly/steeply/suddenly.</p> <p>Sulphur oxide emissions decreased dramatically/ rapidly/sharply/significantly/steeply/suddenly</p>

An asterisk (*) indicates an extreme increase or decrease

Change and Stability

Vocabulary	Examples
Change	
<i>fluctuate</i> (verb)	The figure for CO ₂ emissions fluctuated between 1990 and 2000.
<i>fluctuation</i> (noun)	There was a fluctuation in the figure for CO ₂ emissions between 1990 and 2000
Change over Time	
<i>increase twofold/threefold</i> (verb) <i>twofold/threefold increase</i> (noun)	<p>The percentage increased twofold/threefold.</p> <p>Figure X shows a twofold/threefold increase in percentage.</p>
<i>double/treble/quadruple</i> (verb) <i>double / twice / two times</i>	<p>The percentage doubled/trebled/quadrupled.</p> <p>The percentage for 2016 is double / twice / two times that of 2012.</p>

Vocabulary	Examples
Stability	
<i>remain constant / stable / steady / the same / unchanged</i>	Nitrogen oxide emissions remained constant / stable / steady / the same / unchanged.
<i>stay constant / stable / steady / the same / unchanged</i>	Nitrogen oxide emissions stayed constant / stable / steady / the same / unchanged.
<i>stabilize</i>	Nitrogen oxide emissions stabilized.

Highs and Lows in the Data

Vocabulary	Examples
Highs	
<i>peak</i>	In 2013, emissions of ammonia peaked.
<i>reach a high/peak</i>	In 2013, emissions of ammonia reached a high/peak.
<i>reach their highest level/point/percentage</i>	In 2013, emissions of ammonia reached their highest level/point/percentage.
<i>rise to their highest level/point/percentage</i>	In 2013, emissions of ammonia rose to their highest level/point/percentage.
Lows	
<i>fall to a low / a low point</i>	In 2013, NMVOC emissions fell to a low / a low point.
<i>reach a low / a low point</i>	In 2013, NMVOC emissions reached a low / a low point
<i>reach their lowest level/point/percentage</i>	In 2013, NMVOC emissions reached their lowest level/point/percentage.

TASK 7 DESCRIBE STATISTICAL DATA

Complete the sentences below to describe the statistical data in Figure 2 and Table 1 on pages 81 and 82. Follow the prompts in parentheses, and write the sentences in an appropriate style for this genre of expository writing.

Figure 2

- Between 1990 and 2013, _____.
(Describe a fall in percentage terms; include an adverb.)
- During the same period, the most dramatic fall was in emissions of _____.
(Describe the fall in percentage terms.)
- Between 1994 and 2000, emissions of ammonia _____.
(Describe whether emissions rose, fell, or did both.)

Table 1

- In 2013, the highest emitter of ammonia was _____.
(Compare the highest and lowest emitters of ammonia; include the number of tonnes.)

5. Nitrogen oxide emissions in Belgium were _____

(Compare nitrogen oxide emissions in Belgium and the UK; state the difference in terms of a fraction, percentage, or multiple.)

EXTEND YOUR ACADEMIC VOCABULARY

Extend your knowledge of key vocabulary from this chapter.

additive

decline

fluctuate

analogous

diagnose

generic

array

disparate

slight

as such

dramatic

successive

*Words in bold type are AWL entries

MyLab

Practise Chapter 4
vocabulary online

CRITICAL THINKING

ENGAGING CRITICALLY WITH STATISTICAL DATA

As well as selecting key information and representing that information accurately, it is important to engage critically with statistical data by analyzing and evaluating information as you read and write. Figure 2 and Table 1 on pages 81 and 82 are from a reputable European Union organization. Nonetheless, it is still possible to read such sources with a critical eye, weighing factors that could affect the reliability of the statistics, such as inconsistencies in the collection and analysis of data.

TASK 8 THINK CRITICALLY ABOUT FIGURE 2 AND TABLE 1

Look again at Figure 2 and Table 1 on pages 81 and 82. List below any factors to consider when assessing the reliability of the statistics.

Statistics in News Media

When you read statistics in news reports, it is important to read critically and assess the reliability of the statistics and the resulting claims made by the media. This is especially the case when reading sensational stories in popular tabloid newspapers. The following is an example from the British tabloid *Daily Mail*, in which the headline claims that modern life is killing children.

Modern Life Is KILLING Children: Gadgets, Pollution and Pesticides Are Blamed as Cancer Rates Soar 40 per cent in Just 16 Years

by Simon Holmes

Pollution, pesticides and fast food is killing our children with new government statistics revealing that the number of youngsters diagnosed with cancer has risen by 40% over the past 16 years.

Analysis compiled by researchers from the charity Children with Cancer UK found new cases of cancer in young people rose by 1,300 every year since statistics were last compiled in 1998.

The charity found this is most evident in colon cancer which has increased by 200% and thyroid cancer which has seen its cases doubled during the 18 years since the last report was released.

Although researchers can attribute some of the rise to improvements in cancer diagnoses and more screening, they admit the majority is probably caused by environmental factors.

Alasdair Philips, science adviser at Children with Cancer UK told Sky News that there seems to be 'a correlation between the lifestyle of young people.'

'They tend to be doing a lot less exercise and there's also a lot of fast food being eaten, which is fine in moderation, but we know they do contain cancer giving substances,' he said. . . .

Excerpt from Holmes, S. (2016, September 4) Modern life is killing children: Gadgets, pollution and pesticides are blamed as cancer rates soar 40 per cent in just 16 years. *MailOnline*. Retrieved from <http://www.dailymail.co.uk/news/article-3773015/KILLING-children-gadgets-pollution-pesticides-blamed-cancer-rates-soar-40-cent-just-16-years.html>

TASK 9 ENGAGE CRITICALLY WITH MEDIA STATISTICS

Answer the following questions about the headline and excerpt from the *Daily Mail* article.

1. In what ways does the headline fail to match the content of the article in terms of causality and correlation?

2. How does the mismatch between the headline and content affect you as a critical reader? Are you convinced?

3. Find the grammatical errors in the first and third paragraphs of the text, and correct them below. How might the grammatical inaccuracy affect readers' inclination to be persuaded by the arguments?

EFFECTIVE SENTENCE STRUCTURE

SUBJECT-VERB AGREEMENT

All complete sentences in academic writing should have a subject, and a verb (or verbs) that corresponds with the subject. This feature of sentences is called *subject-verb agreement*. The most important aspect of this feature is making sure that singular and plural verbs agree with singular and plural subjects, respectively. Several additional rules of usage are explained in detail in Unit 10 of the Handbook.

TASK 10 IDENTIFY THE SUBJECTS AND CORRESPONDING VERBS

The following excerpts are taken from the *Encyclopædia Britannica* entry on 3D printing. Underline the subject(s) and **highlight** the corresponding verb(s) in each excerpt. One excerpt lacks a subject and corresponding verb.

1. **3D printing**, in full **three-dimensional printing**, in manufacturing, any of several processes for fabricating three-dimensional objects by layering two-dimensional cross sections sequentially, one on top of another.
2. The process is analogous to the fusing of ink or toner onto paper in a printer.
3. Objects made in 3D printing range from plastic figurines and mold patterns to steel machine parts and titanium surgical implants.

4. In most processes the starting material is a fine plastic or metal powder.
5. An array of nozzles sprays a binding agent in a pattern determined by the computer program.
6. A thin layer of polymer liquid rather than powder is spread over the build area.
7. Such human tissue models generated through 3D bioprinting are of particular use in the field of regenerative medicine.

REVIEW OF SENTENCE FRAGMENTS AND PUNCTUATION

TASK 11 ANALYZE A SENTENCE FRAGMENT

The opening sentence of the *Encyclopædia Britannica* entry is a sentence fragment because it lacks a subject and a corresponding verb:

3D printing, in full **three-dimensional printing**, in manufacturing, any of several processes for fabricating three-dimensional objects by layering two-dimensional cross sections sequentially, one on top of another.

Is the usage appropriate for this type of text? Explain why or why not.

TASK 12 CORRECT PUNCTUATION

The Eurostat article is not punctuated consistently according to the rules of academic writing that you have studied in this book. Read the following sentences from the article and add, change, or delete punctuation where necessary.

1. From 1990 to 2013 the EU-28 recorded reductions in emissions of all air pollutants considered in this article.
2. The biggest fall was reported for sulphur oxides (SO_x) which between 1990 and 2013 decreased by 86.7%, followed by non-methane volatile organic compounds (NMVOCs) which declined by nearly 60%.
3. Nitrogen oxides (NO_x) stood at 53.5% of their 1990 levels (a decrease of roughly 46.5%), while the smallest decrease was reported for ammonia (NH₃), emissions of which fell only by 27% by 2013.

EFFECTIVE WRITING STYLE

REWRITING FOR IMPROVED STYLE

In previous chapters, you analyzed the style of different texts and did practice activities to improve the style of your academic writing, ranging from avoiding

contractions and addressing the reader as you to using more academic vocabulary and more varied sentence structure. In this chapter, you will review the earlier tasks on effective style by analyzing sentences from one of the texts in this chapter and rewriting them in a different, improved style.

TASK 13 REVIEW EFFECTIVE STYLE

The excerpts below are from the *Encyclopædia Britannica* entry on 3D printing. Read each excerpt and the explanation that follows. Then rewrite the sentence(s) in a different style according to the explanation.

1. Objects made in 3D printing range from plastic figurines and mold patterns to steel machine parts and titanium surgical implants. An entire 3D printing apparatus can be enclosed in a cabinet roughly the size of a large kitchen stove or refrigerator.

Explanation: The two sentences do not flow well. Improve the flow by connecting them with a conjunctive adverb.

2. Typically, the powder is stored in cartridges or beds from which it is dispensed in small amounts and spread by a roller or blade in an extremely thin layer (commonly only the thickness of the powder grains, which can be as small as 20 micrometres, or 0.0008 inch) over the bed where the part is being built up.

Explanation: The sentence is too long and contains too much information. Improve the clarity by separating it into two or more sentences.

3. The original 3DP process made mainly rough mock-ups out of plastic, ceramic, and even plaster, but later variations employed metal powder as well and produced more precise and more durable parts.

Explanation: This is a compound sentence, with two independent clauses joined by the coordinator *but*. Improve the style by replacing *but* with a subordinator, thus creating a complex sentence.

4. Yet another variation is electron beam melting (EBM); here the laser apparatus is replaced by an electron gun, which focuses a powerful electrically charged beam onto the powder under vacuum conditions.

Explanation: The style is repetitive because previously in the same paragraph, the writer also uses a semicolon followed by the word *here*. Improve the style by avoiding the repeated form.

5. As such, they are considered to have several advantages over traditional fabrication, chief among them being an absence of the expensive tooling used in foundry and milling processes; the ability to produce complicated, customized parts on short notice; and the generating of less waste.

Explanation: The advantages are correctly separated by semicolons because one of the examples includes a comma. However, the exemplification is rather confusing. Improve the style by rewriting the sentence, using *the following*.

My eLab
Find supplementary
reading, writing,
and critical-thinking
activities online

WRITE, REVISE, AND EDIT

TWO EXPOSITORY PARAGRAPHS

TASK 14 WRITE A PROCESS PARAGRAPH

Write a process paragraph to describe the pollution cycle as illustrated in the diagram on the next page, published by the New South Wales government in Australia. Follow this method:

1. Begin with an introductory sentence describing the focus and purpose of the diagram and identifying its source.
2. Continue with a selective sentence-by-sentence description of the most salient parts of the process, following the order of the cycle from the bottom left upward and then down the right side.

FIGURE 3 SOURCES OF POLLUTION



aquatic ecosystems:
communities of
interdependent plants and
organisms living in water

estuaries: points where
rivers flow into the sea

biogenic: produced
by living things

prevailing winds:
frequent winds in an area

photochemistry: chemical
reactions caused by light

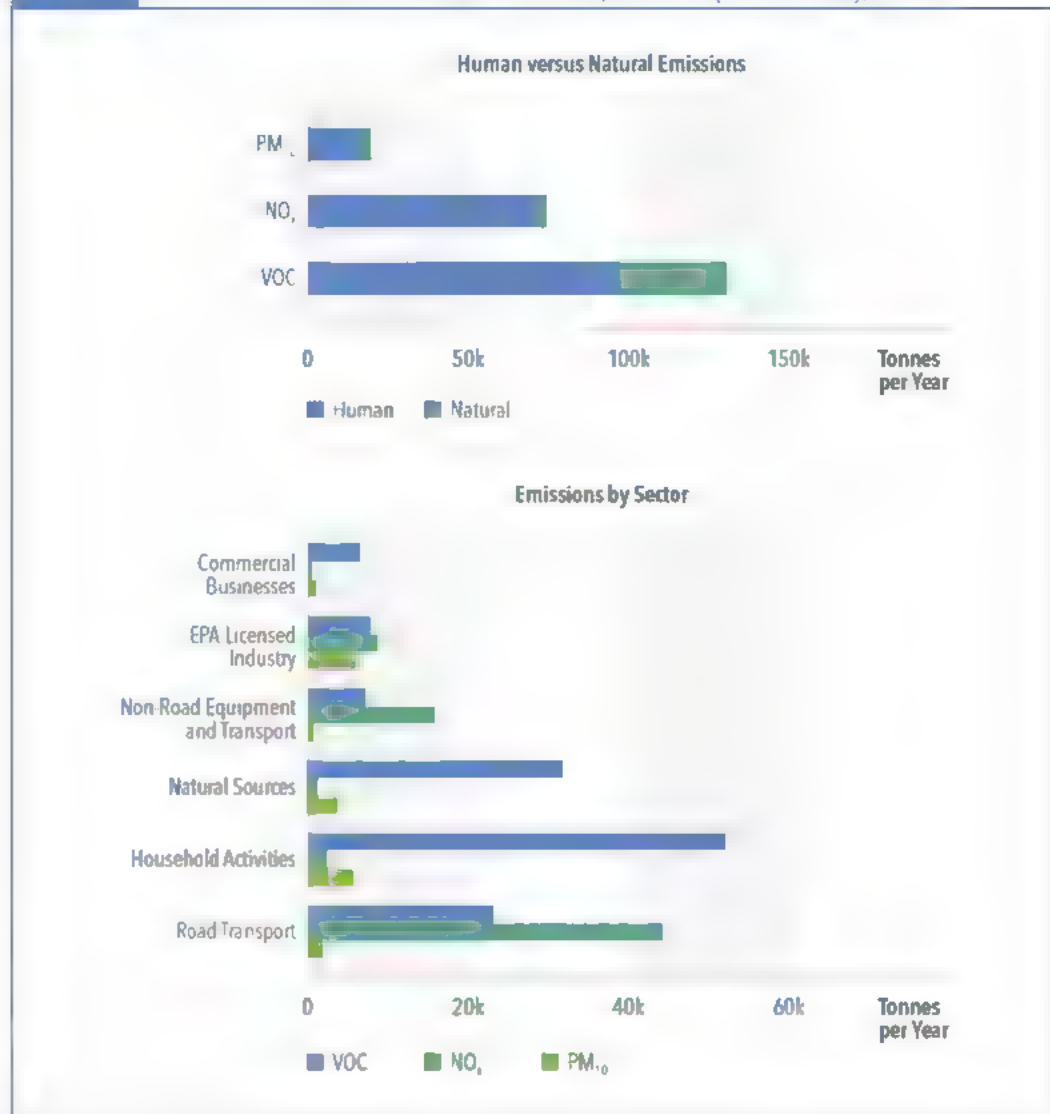
New South Wales Environment Protection Authority. (n.d.). Various sources of pollution. Retrieved from <http://www.epa.nsw.gov.au/air/>

TASK 15 WRITE A PARAGRAPH DESCRIBING DATA

Write a paragraph to describe the data on human versus natural emissions in the bar charts on the next page. This data is also from the New South Wales government in Australia. Follow this method:

1. Begin with an introductory sentence describing the focus and purpose of the data and identifying the data source.
2. Next, write a sentence describing any overall trends you can find.
3. Continue with a selective sentence-by-sentence description of the most salient data, comparing amounts, ranking emissions from high to low, or other.

FIGURE 4 HUMAN VERSUS NATURAL EMISSIONS, SYDNEY (AUSTRALIA), 2008



PM₁₀: particulate matter with a diameter of 10 micrometres or less

k: thousands

EPA: Environment Protection Authority

New South Wales Environment Protection Authority. (n.d.). *Air emissions in my community web tool*. Retrieved from <http://www.epa.nsw.gov.au/air/airemissionsinmycommunity.htm>

Checklist for Revising and Editing

Use the checklist below to revise and edit the sentences in your paragraphs. First, check your own writing for these features. Then, in groups of three, review each other's paragraphs, using the same checklist. Add comments as necessary.

- ☐ The text contains objective, descriptive language.
- ☐ The language is impersonal.
- ☐ The passive voice is used appropriately.
- ☐ The style is formal and academic (in this case, non-technical style is acceptable).
- ☐ Paragraphs are coherent and cohesive.
- ☐ The grammar is accurate.

Identify useful criticism and recommendations in the reviews of your work; revise and edit your paragraphs accordingly.

PART 2

WRITING FOR ACADEMIC PURPOSES: ARGUMENTS



BRINGING IN OTHERS' IDEAS: WRITING

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To be a successful academic writer, you need to search for useful sources, select relevant and important ideas, and incorporate these ideas into your own writing. When you use the ideas of experts to make your writing more effective and convincing, you are metaphorically standing on their shoulders to improve your vision and understanding in your subject area. However, those ideas do not belong to you. The rules of academic integrity require that you acknowledge your sources.

In this chapter, you will:

- learn about plagiarism and how to avoid it
- read two articles about plagiarism
- guess meaning from context
- study inference
- practise shifting style and writing reference list entries
- study reporting verbs
- study relative clauses
- learn how to write a response paper
- write a 200-word response paper

TASK 1 EXPLORE THROUGH WRITING

What is academic integrity, and what is plagiarism?

Take five minutes to answer the questions. Try to write as many ideas as possible. After you have finished, in groups of three, read each other's notes and discuss what you have written.

ACADEMIC INTEGRITY

Exercising academic integrity means behaving honestly and ethically as a student, following the rules of an institution, and respecting and acknowledging the intellectual property of others in your work. Accordingly, it means avoiding cheating and plagiarizing.

Plagiarism and Intention

Plagiarism can be defined as using others' ideas, statistics, or creative works in your writing as if they were your own, without acknowledging your source.

When a writer commits plagiarism, it is not always clear whether he or she intended to. Sometimes, plagiarism may be unintentional, for example, when a writer forgets to add an in-text citation for an idea paraphrased from someone else's work. However, if a student pays for an essay from an Internet essay mill and passes it off as his or her own work, the intention is clear.

Remember: your instructors cannot read your intentions, only your writing. Many will assume intention.

Common Knowledge

When writing, if you use an idea or a piece of information that is considered common knowledge, it is not necessary to acknowledge your source. The following two examples illustrate what common knowledge is and is not:

The North American Free Trade Agreement (NAFTA) came into effect on January 1, 1994.

This is common knowledge because it is a historical fact.

The North American Free Trade Agreement (NAFTA), which came into effect in 1994, has mainly benefited large corporations in the United States, Canada, and Mexico.

This is not common knowledge because it is not a historical fact. It is a writer's opinion about the results of the historical fact. If you copy this idea without acknowledging your source, you are committing plagiarism by passing off another writer's idea as your own.

TASK 2 IDENTIFY ACTS OF PLAGIARISM

Read the following eight examples of students incorporating others' ideas into their writing. Circle the number from 1 to 3 that fits your understanding of the situation, and then explain your answer.

1. A student included a direct quotation and did not include quotation marks and an in-text citation with a page number.

1
plagiarism

2
not sure

3
not plagiarism

2. A student paraphrased original ideas from another source and did not include an in-text citation.

1
plagiarism

2
not sure

3
not plagiarism

3. A student paraphrased several sentences from another source, making only a few changes to the vocabulary and grammar, and included a citation.

1
plagiarism

2
not sure

3
not plagiarism

4. A student asked for help from a private tutor, who rewrote some sections of an essay so the student could get a better grade.

1
plagiarism

2
not sure

3
not plagiarism

5. A student asked for help from a private tutor, who corrected only grammar and vocabulary errors so the student could get a better grade.

1
plagiarism

2
not sure

3
not plagiarism

6. A student submitted an essay in an academic writing course that he or she had previously submitted in another course.

1
plagiarism

2
not sure

3
not plagiarism

7. A student downloaded an essay from the Internet and submitted it without changing anything.

1
plagiarism

2
not sure

3
not plagiarism

8. A student included in-text citations for all paraphrases and direct quotations in an essay but did not include a corresponding reference for each of them in the reference list at the end of the essay.

1
plagiarism

2
not sure

3
not plagiarism

ACTIVE AND CRITICAL READING

WRITING FROM SOURCES AND PLAGIARISM

The following excerpt is from an academic journal article on the challenges students face when writing from sources.

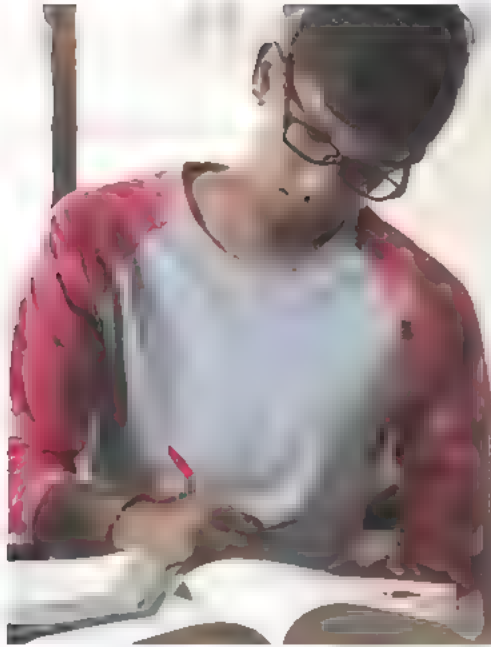
Student Perceptions of the Value of Turnitin Text-Matching Software as a Learning Tool

by Carol Bailey and Rachel Challen

Introduction

Academic writing is a challenging venture, especially when writing from sources. It involves reading widely yet selectively, understanding and questioning what we read, and **weaving together** multiple authors' voices with our own, indicating both their relationships to each other and how they have influenced our own thinking on the topic. When writing for scholarly

weaving together:
combining, joining together



tutor feedback: comments from an instructor

baffled: very confused

exhortations: strong recommendation, urging someone to do something

grounding: basic understanding

sourcing: looking for, locating

publication, we engage in conversation with our academic peers; thus it is of crucial importance that we correctly represent and attribute each other's views.

Student writing follows a similar process but has a rather different purpose. When teachers set written coursework, they hope that by reading and writing students will develop not only their knowledge but also their thinking and communication skills. However, a key function of student writing is assessment of said knowledge and skills. The student writer has a limited readership . . . , and conversation is restricted to **tutor feedback**, often with little scope for student response. **Baffled** by sometimes inexplicable and apparently contradictory **exhortations** to read more widely yet be selective, to 'use your own words and ideas' yet provide a citation for every statement, novice writers may find themselves engaging in a 'hollow simulacrum of research' (Jamieson and Howard, 2011b:n.p.). This can include

behaviours such as falsification of references, copy-pasting citations to sources the student has not read, and what Howard et al. call 'quote-mining' (2010:186), all in the belief that more references will placate the lecturer and lead to higher grades (Harwood and Petric, 2012; Ellery, 2008).

This article will explore student perceptions of the text-matching software Turnitin. Because Turnitin is commonly employed to detect inappropriate textual borrowing (Badge and Scott, 2009), studies on its use often commence with a discussion of plagiarism: its incidence, causes and solutions. Since we will be focussing on the use of Turnitin in developing academic writing skills, we begin by examining some of the challenges students face when writing from sources.

Although most students now arrive at university with some **grounding** in information technology, recent studies suggest that young Internet users, while confident with the technology, are less competent when it comes to **sourcing** and critically evaluating online information (Bartlett and Miller, 2011). In Higher Education, this reveals itself as a tendency to depend on sources which educators may consider insufficiently reliable or 'academic'. . . .

While students are likely to access increasingly authoritative sources as they progress through their studies, Judd and Kennedy found that even in their final year students were relying on Google and Wikipedia 41% of the time, and only 40% of the sources they accessed via Google were classified by the authors as highly reliable (2011:355–57). Similarly, iParadigms relate that of 112 million content matches in 28 million student papers submitted to Turnitin between July 2011 and June 2012, 43% were to 'sites that are academically suspect, including . . . user-generated content' (2012:3). The most popular source, representing 11% of all matched text, was Wikipedia.

A further finding of the Citation Project is that a high proportion of citations were to the first page of a source (46%) or to the first three pages (77%). . . . Most of the citations were quotations, sentence-level paraphrase or patchwriting. . . .

coined: invented

denote: mean, stand for

synonym: word with similar or the same meaning

ibid: same as the previous reference

inferencing: when meaning is unclear, looking at evidence and reaching a conclusion

academic discourse: academic language and communication

construe: analyze and understand

information literacy: ability to find and use information

- The term 'patchwriting' was **coined** by Howard in 1992 to **denote** 'copying from a source text and then deleting some words, altering grammatical structures, or plugging in one-for-one **synonym**-substitutes' (Howard, 1992:233). While some assessors judge this to be a form of plagiarism, Howard argues that it should instead be considered a 'valuable composing strategy' enabling the novice writer's 'manipulation of new ideas and vocabulary' in an unfamiliar discourse (**ibid**). This view of patchwriting as a learning strategy is confirmed in Pecorari's (2003) study of postgraduate student writing. Investigating the influence of mother tongue, Keck (2006) found that L2 writers were more likely than native speakers to use 'Near Copy' as a textual borrowing strategy. However, she also noted that both L1 and L2 undergraduates made significant use of 'minimal revision' paraphrase in their writing (Keck, 2006:275-6). This may be partly due to confusion over what constitutes acceptable paraphrase (Zimitat, 2008). Yet native English writers may, like users of English as an Additional Language (EAL), lack the vocabulary, background knowledge, **inferencing** ability and fluency with **academic discourse** to **construe** complex texts 'in their own words'.
- Higher Education Institutions have numerous ways of helping students develop their **information literacy** and academic writing skills. In addition to course guidance documents and academic writing tuition . . . , many institutions have developed online tutorials on academic writing from sources, and some are commercially available.
- One tool which is becoming widely adopted in teaching academic writing is the text-matching software Turnitin, which compares uploaded text with documents in its database (including webpages, academic articles and previously uploaded student papers), then generates an 'Originality Report' highlighting potentially copied material, linked by colour-coding to its possible source.

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Judd, T. and Kennedy, G. (2011). 'Expediency based practice? Medical students' reliance on Google and Wikipedia for biomedical enquiries', *British Journal of Educational Technology*, 42(2), pp. 351–360.

Keck, C. (2006). 'The use of paraphrase in summary writing: a comparison of L1 and L2 writers', *Journal of Second Language Writing*, 15, pp. 261–278.

Pecorari, D. (2003). 'Good and original: plagiarism and patchwriting in academic second language writing', *Journal of Second Language Writing*, 12, pp. 317–45.

Zimitat, C. (2008). 'A student perspective of plagiarism', in Roberts, T. (2008) *Student plagiarism in an online world: problems and solutions*. New York: Hershey, pp. 10–22.

Excerpts from Bailey, C., & Challen, R. (2015). Student perceptions of the value of Turnitin text matching software as a learning tool *Practitioner Research in Higher Education*, 9(1), 38–51.

TASK 3 GUESS THE MEANING FROM CONTEXT

Read the following sentences and phrases from the Bailey and Challen article, and focus on the words in bold. First, find the sentence or phrase in the text; then look at the surrounding text to try to guess the meaning. Write what you think the words mean (if you are sure) or might mean (if you are not sure). See the example below.

Novice writers may find themselves engaging in a '**hollow simulacrum of research**'. [LINES 20–22]

What do you think it means? Novice writers may find themselves engaging in an *empty and unsatisfactory imitation of research*.

Which words give you clues? The next sentence begins with the defining words "This can include." Then it refers to "falsification of references, copy-pasting citations to sources the student has not read," and "quote-mining."

1. Academic writing is a **challenging venture**. [LINE 2]

What do you think it means? _____

Which words give you clues? _____

2. It is of crucial importance that we correctly represent and **attribute each other's views**. [LINES 8–9]

What do you think it means? _____

Which words give you clues? _____

3. However, a key function of student writing is assessment of **said knowledge and skills**. [LINES 14–15]

What do you think it means? _____

Which words give you clues? _____

4. Turnitin is commonly employed **to detect inappropriate textual borrowing**.
[LINES 28–29]

What do you think it means? _____

Which words give you clues? _____

5. Keck (2006) found that **L2 writers** were more likely than native speakers to use 'Near Copy' as a textual borrowing strategy. [LINES 61–63]

What do you think it means? _____

Which words give you clues? _____

Inference

In the margin of the Bailey and Challen article, inference is defined as “looking at evidence and reaching a conclusion when meaning is unclear.” As a reader, you need to infer meaning when a writer’s idea is not completely clear to you. You may understand the words but struggle to fully understand the writer’s broader opinion, claim, or purpose in making the statement. Consider the following example:

Baffled by sometimes inexplicable and apparently contradictory exhortations to read more widely yet be selective, to ‘use your own words and ideas’ yet provide a citation for every statement, novice writers may find themselves engaging in a ‘hollow simulacrum of research’. [LINES 17–22]

Problem: Even if you understand the individual words, the authors’ stance (their opinion of students who do unsatisfactory research) is not clearly stated. If the authors’ purpose had been to state their position explicitly, they could have done so as follows:

Novice writers may **have no option but to engage** in a “hollow simulacrum of research.” (sympathetic)

Novice writers may **try to deceive their instructors by engaging** in a “hollow simulacrum of research.” (unsympathetic)

However, because the stance is unclear, the reader has to infer it by looking at the evidence and reaching a conclusion.

Question: Do you think the authors are being sympathetic toward students or critical of them?

Inference: The authors seem sympathetic because they explain that students are baffled by being asked to do things that are inexplicable and contradictory, and that this contradiction may be the reason—at least in part—for their unsuccessful attempts at research.

TASK 4 INFER THE MEANING

Look at each of the following quotations from the article, and read the problem that requires you to infer meaning. Then answer the question that follows. Compare the inferred meanings with a partner before writing your answers.

1. While students are likely to access increasingly authoritative sources as they progress through their studies, Judd and Kennedy found that even in their final year students were relying on Google and Wikipedia 41% of the time, and only 40% of the sources they accessed via Google were classified by the authors as highly reliable. [LINES 40–44]

Problem: The authors' purpose in citing these statistics is not clear.

Question: What can you infer from the statistics about the authors' opinion of final-year students?

Inference: _____

2. A further finding of the Citation Project is that a high proportion of citations were to the first page of a source (46%) or to the first three pages (77%). Most of the citations were quotations, sentence-level paraphrase or patchwriting. [LINES 49–52]

Problem: The authors' purpose in including these findings is not clearly stated.

Question: Do these specific findings of the Citation Project portray students in a positive or negative light? Explain your answer.

Inference: _____

3. While some assessors judge this to be a form of plagiarism, Howard argues that it should instead be considered a 'valuable composing strategy' enabling the novice writer's 'manipulation of new ideas and vocabulary' in an unfamiliar discourse. [LINES 56–59]

Problem: The authors are presenting two opposing views without explicitly stating their own stance.

Question: Do the authors give more emphasis to one idea than to the other, thus giving a clue to their stance? Consider what you studied in Chapter 3 about emphasizing information in complex sentences.

Inference: _____

4. One tool which is becoming widely adopted in teaching academic writing is the text-matching software Turnitin, which compares uploaded text with documents in its database (including webpages, academic articles and previously uploaded student papers), then generates an 'Originality Report' highlighting potentially copied material, linked by colour-coding to its possible source. [LINES 75–80]

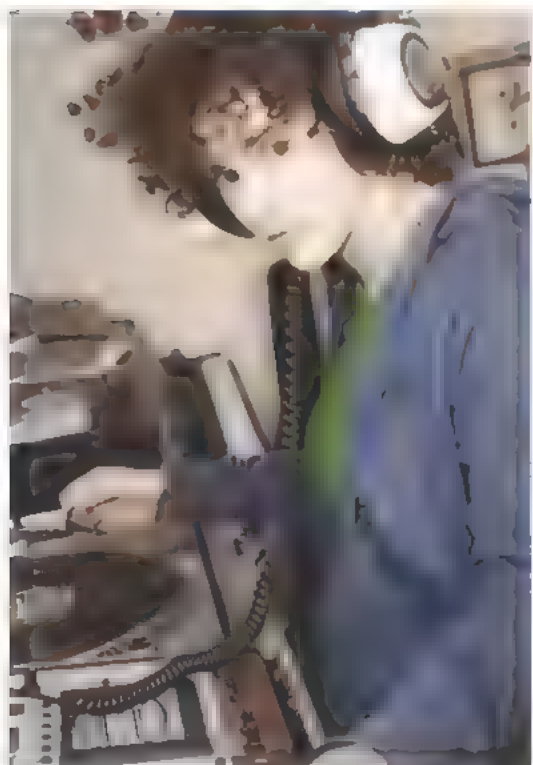
Problem: The authors do not indicate whether they support using Turnitin.

Question: In their description of Turnitin, do the authors give any indication whether they support or oppose its use in higher education?

Inference: _____

ACTIVE AND CRITICAL READING

PLAGIARISM IN THE MUSIC INDUSTRY



You are going to read an online article on plagiarism in the music industry.

TASK 5 EXPLORE THROUGH DISCUSSION

Discuss the following question in groups: Why do laws and rules about plagiarism exist?

Online Sources

Online, non-peer-reviewed articles are usually written in a less formal style. The style is a reflection of the genre, the aim to attract a broad audience, as well as the personal preferences of the writer. Such articles can provide useful background knowledge about a subject, especially if it is topical and no reliable peer-reviewed books or articles are available.

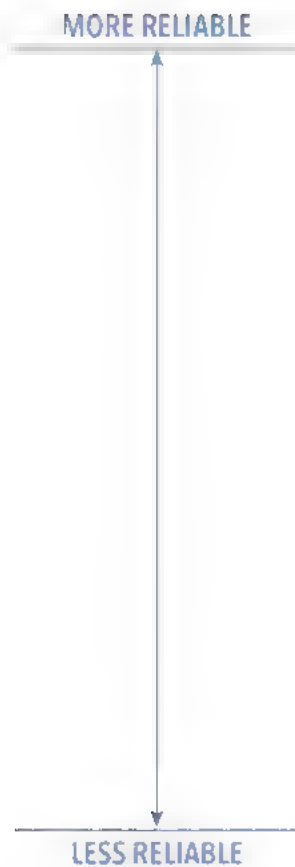
There are two important challenges to consider when you refer to online articles in your academic writing: reliability and style shift.

Reliability

If you look for sources using an Internet search engine, you will find many different types of articles:

- newspaper and magazine articles
- articles and documents from governmental and non-governmental organizations
- blogs
- peer-reviewed journal articles

You can find different information in different sources, but if you want to use information, ideas, or statistics from any of these sources, you need to be sure that what you are reading is reliable.



- Peer-reviewed books and articles

For a source to be considered reliable, it should be peer-reviewed, which means it has been assessed by academic experts and editors. As the peer-review process takes time, it is not always possible to find peer-reviewed articles or books on very recent topics.

- News media

Newspaper articles are reviewed by editors but rarely by academic experts. News media sources vary considerably in terms of reliability. Some serious news organizations are trustworthy and reliable because professional journalists verify their sources; other organizations—for example, many tabloid newspapers—do not hold their writers to the same standards.

- Websites, blogs, and wikis

You can find useful information, especially statistics and information about policies, on the websites of governmental and non-governmental organizations. The information is not usually reviewed by peers or editors, and you will often find different views on a topic depending on the type of organization, so you need to read critically.

Popular websites, blogs, and wikis can give you a good idea of the general debate around a topic, but they are not considered reliable due to the lack of peer review and editorial control of their content.

Reliability Checklists

Use the following checklists to assess the reliability of different sources.

Academic books and articles are the most reliable sources. Nonetheless, some are more reliable than others. Consider the following criteria when using academic books and articles:

- ☐ Has the book or article been reviewed by expert peers?
- ☐ Does the book or article contain in-text citations and references?
- ☐ Is the publisher a recognized academic publisher?
- ☐ Has the book or article been cited by other academic publications?

And for articles only:

- ☐ Is the journal linked to recognized academic databases?
- ☐ Does the journal appear regularly?
- ☐ Does the journal have an editor and an editorial board of academics?

If the answer to any of these questions is no, the book or article may be less reliable.

News media are useful sources for up-to-date information on a broad range of topics. There are many different news media—some reliable, and some not. Consider the following criteria when using news media:

- ☐ Does the newspaper or news website seem serious?
- ☐ Is the language and style formal?
- ☐ Are opinions and statistics attributed to reliable sources?
- ☐ Are opinions and claims balanced, and supported with evidence?

If the answer to any of these questions is no, the news source is not reliable.

Websites, blogs, and wikis can provide useful background information about a topic, but they are not always reliable. Consider the following criteria if you intend to cite such sources:

- ☐ Is the source a recognized governmental or non-governmental organization?
- ☐ Does the content have an author, date, in-text citations, and a reference list?
- ☐ Is the style of writing formal and academic?
- ☐ Is the tone serious and the site devoid of flashy colours and advertisements?

If the answer to any of these questions is no, the site is not reliable.

TASK 6 ASSESS RELIABILITY

Look at the article below, an online news article, and assess its reliability by answering the questions in the news media checklist. Discuss your answers in small groups.

Style Shift

The next article is from an online news source and is written in a style that is wholly appropriate for the genre: it does not follow the formal citation and referencing rules required for academic texts, and it is engaging, informal, and conversational. However, this style is not appropriate for academic writing.

In Effective Writing Style on pages 111 and 112, you will practise shifting from informal to formal style. Later in the chapter, you will write a 200-word response paper in which you summarize the main ideas of the article below and respond to them with your personal opinions and impressions. As you write, you will need to shift the style to formal academic English.

TASK 7 READ AND TAKE NOTES

Read the article below on plagiarism in the music industry. As you read, take notes on the following:

- main information and ideas
- whether you think the information and claims are reliable
- your personal response to the article (whether you agree or disagree, whether you are convinced, surprised, etc.)
- examples of informal style that you will need to shift to formal academic English

You will refer to these notes later when you write the response paper.

ripoff: bad imitation

Tom Petty, Marvin Gaye (d. 1984), Robin Thicke, Pharrell Williams, and T.I. are American musicians; Sam Smith is a British musician.

of all stripes: of all sorts

infringement: illegal act

perennial: recurring, happening again and again

chord progression: series of musical chords

melody: tune

veteran: highly experienced

underscores: highlights

dispute: disagreement

lyrics: words to a song

minimal spark: very small amount

elaborate: detailed, complex

unconventional: not usually done

The federal law mentioned here is US law; other countries have different copyright terms.

thereof: of this or that

go to trial: go to court

truism: something that is obviously true

predecessors: people before us

contemporaries: people living at the same time

Here's What Makes a Song a **Ripoff**, according to the Law: How You Think about Music \neq How the Courts Think about Music

by Reggie Ugwu

Music is art, and art is for people—not lawyers. But musicians have long relied on the law to protect their creations. For nearly two centuries, courts in the United States have heard cases from songwriters seeking to defend their compositions from thieves, cheats, and liars **of all stripes**. It's a tradition that continues today—with recent disputes between Tom Petty and Sam Smith (settled amicably out of court) and the Marvin Gaye family and Robin Thicke, Pharrell Williams, T.I., et al (currently at trial)—putting the modern music industry on high alert.

In those cases, and in most disputes alleging copyright **infringement** of a musical composition, a few **perennial** questions arise: When can a person be said to own something like a **chord progression** or **melody**? And in a world where everyone is inspired by someone else, where is the line between plagiarism and influence? To help us answer these questions in plain English, we spoke to Paul Fakler, a **veteran** copyright lawyer with a specialty in music law, of the law firm Arent Fox.

What we learned **underscores** the gap between how casual music fans think about music, and how it's treated as a matter of law. . . .

Music compositions, like other forms of creative expression, are protected by copyright under the law. Under the Copyright Act of 1976, which took effect in 1978, anytime a person writes or records an original piece of music, a copyright automatically exists. Registration with the U.S. Copyright Office is optional, but does come with certain benefits in the event of an infringement **dispute**. Copyrighted elements of a musical composition can include melody, chord progression, rhythm, and **lyrics**—anything that reflects a “**minimal spark**” of creativity and originality.

“It really doesn't have to be a whole lot,” said Fakler. “If a single chord progression were **elaborate** enough and **unconventional** enough, it could be protected.”

One important instance where copyright doesn't apply is public domain. If a song was published prior to 1923, it is considered to be in the public domain and is not protected. Federal law says that creative works, including music compositions, enter the public domain after the life of the creator plus 70 years. . . . Copyright is designed to prevent people from copying a creative work, or specific elements **thereof**, without permission.

Disputes over music copyrights are very common, but often don't **go to trial**. If you've ever listened to a song and thought it sounded a lot like another, older song, you probably weren't alone. It's a **truism** of popular music that everyone is influenced by their **predecessors** (and, often, **contemporaries**), and perceived similarities between songs often lead to disputes.

murky: unclear (negative connotation)

the latter: the second of two examples

litigation: legal action

juries: groups of people who decide a verdict

stigmas: shame

duplicious: dishonest

belligerent: aggressive

tort: act that is legally wrong

defendant: person in court accused of a crime

parties: groups (litigants and defendants)

on someone's radar: that has come to someone's attention

subconsciously: without realizing

hallmark: main feature

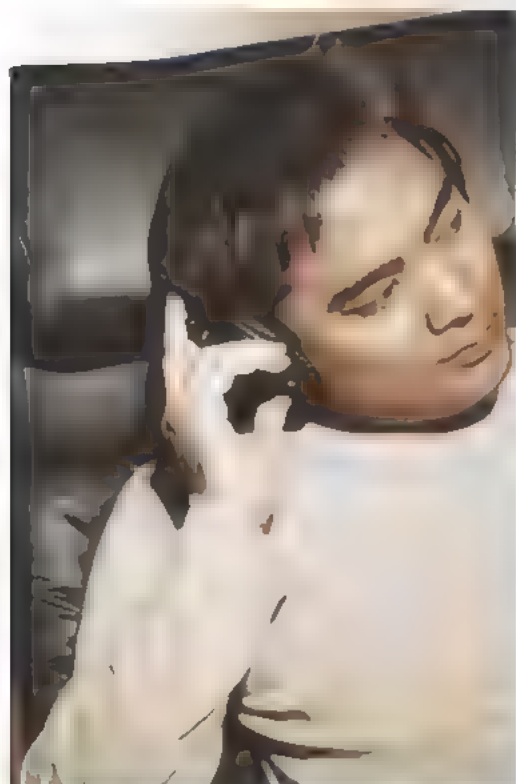
- 40 “In songwriting, you’re always building on what came before you, and the line between influence and copying can be a **murky** one,” said Fakler.

As was the case with Tom Petty and Sam Smith, in which **the latter’s** “Stay With Me” was alleged to infringe on the former’s “I Won’t Back Down,” most disputes are settled privately out of court. Fakler says that’s because

- 41 **litigation** is expensive, **juries** are unpredictable, and there are **stigmas** that can stick to both sides: The accused can get labeled as unoriginal or **duplicious**, and the accuser can be viewed as greedy or **belligerent**.

In the event of a trial, the person claiming infringement (the plaintiff) has to prove two things: “access” and “substantial similarity.” Copyright infringement is what’s called a “strict liability **tort**,” which means the **defendant** doesn’t have to have intended to infringe to be found guilty. To prove guilt, the plaintiff must only demonstrate that the defendant had access to the allegedly infringed song, and that the two songs in question have substantial similarity.

- 42 Access is a question of whether the defendant ever actually heard, or could reasonably be presumed to have heard, the plaintiff’s song at some point before creating the allegedly infringing song. Though not always easy to prove, courts often consider whether a relationship existed between the two **parties** and how well known the plaintiff’s song is generally.
- 43 In the famous 1976 case *Bright Tunes Music v. Harrisongs Music*, the late Beatles member George Harrison was found to have infringed on The Chiffons’ hit “He’s So Fine” with his own solo song “My Sweet Lord” in part because The Chiffons’ song was so popular that there was little doubt whether Harrison had been exposed to it. The judge concluded that even though there
- 44 was no evidence that “He’s So Fine” had been **on Harrison’s radar**, he had likely heard the song and internalized it “**subconsciously**.”



In the case of Robin Thicke and “Blurred Lines,” by contrast, there was never any question of access, since Thicke admitted on his own that his song was inspired by Marvin Gaye’s “Got to Give It Up.”

Substantial similarity is a question of whether or not the average listener can tell that one song has been copied from the other. This is the “ordinary observer test,” what Fakler calls “the **hallmark** of copyright infringement.” The more elements

45 two works have in common, the more likely they are to be ruled substantially similar. Proving substantial similarity in music cases is complicated by the fact that all songs carry two kinds of copyright, for composition and sound recording, that have to be evaluated independently. . . .

- 46 Because most people can’t read music, it’s actually pretty hard for the average juror to tell whether two songs have substantial similarities or not. Given the unreliability of sound recordings and performances in cases where compositions are in dispute, musicologists are often called as expert witnesses to

walk jurors through: explain to members of the jury

cut to the chase: deal quickly with the main issue

attorneys: lawyers

incurred: suffered or experienced

85 **walk jurors through** sheet music. A musicologist for the plaintiff will under-
score the similarities between the two songs as written, while the defendant's
musicologist will stress the differences. "With novels and movies, it's often
easier for jurors to sort of **cut to the chase** and tell whether the thing has
90 been copied or not," said Fakler. "Music cases quickly turn into a battle of
the experts." If accused of infringement, a person can use several specific
defenses to try to beat the claim. . . .

Being found guilty of copyright infringement often comes with serious dam-
ages. Copyright infringement in music cases can easily cost the infringer
millions of dollars in damages—plus **attorneys'** fees in some instances—
95 which can be calculated based on a variety of factors, including the degree
of infringement and the financial losses **incurred**. The plaintiff may also
seek what's called "injunctive relief" and block the record label from further
distribution and sale of the infringing song(s).

100 Though most people, artists included, like to think of their favorite songs as
unique, copyright forces us to ask tough questions about the true nature of
creativity, community, and commerce. "Nothing is completely original,"
Fakler said. "We're all standing on the shoulders of giants."

Excerpts from Ugwu, R. (2015, March 6). Here's what makes a song a ripoff, according to the law:
How you think about music ≠ how the courts think about music. *BuzzFeed*. Retrieved from [http://
www.buzzfeed.com/reggieugwu/what-the-law-says-about-music-plagiarism#mgqoM2dQP](http://www.buzzfeed.com/reggieugwu/what-the-law-says-about-music-plagiarism#mgqoM2dQP)

EFFECTIVE WRITING STYLE

SHIFTING STYLE

The Ugwu article is written according to the genre features of an online persuasive text, which is targeting quite a broad readership, including non-expert readers. To make such texts accessible and engaging for as broad an audience as possible, writers often mix informal online writing styles with more formal academic styles. For example, in the text above, Ugwu uses several less formal, conversational words and phrases to catch his readers' attention.

TASK 8 IDENTIFY INFORMAL STYLE

Scan the article above for language that you think is not appropriate style for academic writing, and which will require a shift in style when you write the response paper. Underline as many examples as you can in five minutes; then discuss your answers in pairs.

TASK 9 SHIFT FROM INFORMAL TO FORMAL STYLE

In the sentences on the next page (taken from the Ugwu article), the phrases in bold are examples of less formal style that would not normally be used in formal academic writing. Match each sentence to one or more of the following descriptions of informal style, and write the corresponding letter(s) under the sentence. Then rewrite the sentence to make it more in line with formal academic writing.

Descriptions of informal style:

- a) use of short simple words (e.g., *look into* instead of *investigate*)
- b) conversational language (e.g., a phrase normally used in spoken, but not written English)
- c) use of simple quantifiers (e.g., *a lot of*, *lots of*, *loads of*)
- d) addressing the reader as *you*
- e) use of coordinators at the beginning of sentences (e.g., *and*, *but*, *so*)
- f) contractions (e.g., *doesn't*, *don't* instead of *does not*, *do not*)

1. **But** musicians have long relied on the law to protect their creations.

Letter(s): _____

2. **It's** a tradition that continues today.

Letter(s): _____

3. **"It really doesn't have to be a whole lot,"** said Fakler.

Letter(s): _____

4. If **you've** ever listened to a song and thought it sounded **a lot** like another, older song, **you** probably weren't alone.

Letter(s): _____

5. "In songwriting, **you're** always building on what came before **you** . . .," said Fakler.

Letter(s): _____

6. Because most people **can't** read music, **it's** actually **pretty hard** for the average juror to **tell** whether two songs have substantial similarities or not.

Letter(s): _____

7. "With novels and movies, **it's** often easier for jurors to **sort of cut to the chase** and **tell** whether **the thing** has been copied or not," said Fakler.

Letter(s): _____

REPORTING VERBS

Academic writers use a range of reporting verbs when they refer to others' ideas and arguments. Different reporting verbs have different meanings and functions, which reflect the writer's view of the information being cited.

Reporting Different Types of Information

You can use reporting verbs in different tenses. In most cases, tenses have little effect on the meaning of reporting verbs. You can also use reporting verbs in the active or passive voice without changing the meaning.

The following are some examples taken from, or referring to, the two articles in this chapter.

Reporting Factual Information

Reporting Verbs	Examples
<i>say</i>	Ugwu (2015) says that music compositions, like other forms of creative expression, are protected by copyright under the law.
<i>state</i>	Bailey and Challen (2015) state that higher education institutions help students develop their academic writing in many ways. As stated by Bailey and Challen (2015), higher education institutions help students develop their academic writing in many ways.

Reporting Arguments

Reporting Verbs	Examples
<i>argue</i>	Ugwu (2015) argues that the general public and courts do not listen to music in the same way.
<i>claim</i> <i>maintain</i> <i>support the view that</i>	It is claimed by Ugwu (2015) that the general public and courts do not listen to music in the same way.
<i>suggest</i> <i>imply</i>	Bailey and Challen (2015) suggest that some students may be confused by what is not acceptable in paraphrasing.

Reporting Opposition to Arguments

Reporting Verbs	Examples
<i>challenge</i>	Howard (1992) challenges the view that patchwriting should be understood as intentional plagiarism.
<i>question</i> <i>disagree</i>	The view that patchwriting should be understood as intentional plagiarism is questioned by Howard (1992). In Ugwu (2015), Fakler questions whether any musical work can be completely original.

Using Present and Past Tenses with Reporting Verbs

As a general rule of thumb, use the present tense for reporting verbs even if the article you are referring to was written in the past. If you use the past tense, sometimes the tense will affect the meaning. Specifically, if you are referring to primary research (for which data are collected and analyzed, for example, in an experiment), using a different tense can change the meaning or emphasis.

No Change in Meaning (General Ideas)

In Ugwu (2015), Fakler **says** that is because litigation is expensive, juries are unpredictable, and there are stigmas that can stick to both sides.

The present tense works well for an argument that still stands at the time of writing, as in the example above.

“In songwriting, you’re always building on what came before you, and the line between influence and copying can be a murky one,” **said** Fakler (as cited in Ugwu, 2015).

The past tense works well here because the writer is citing Fakler’s exact words and using a narrative style.

Change in Meaning (Primary Research)

If the reporting verbs (and other descriptive verbs) that refer to primary research are in the past tense, this can suggest that the findings are limited to one particular study.

Judd and Kennedy **found** that even in their final year students **were relying** on Google and Wikipedia 41% of the time, and only 40% of the sources they **accessed** via Google **were classified** by the authors as highly reliable.

On the other hand, if the reporting verbs (and other descriptive verbs) that refer to primary research are in the present tense, this can suggest that the findings are generalizable, which means they can be applied beyond the limits of the study to broader populations. Consider this example (not based on the chapter articles):

Piaget (1952) **argues** that children **learn** by “assimilating” information from the environment.

The present tense here (for the reporting verb *argues* and the verb *learn*) suggests the writer thinks Piaget’s findings are generalizable, which indeed they are: when his studies were replicated with different groups, his original findings were confirmed.

Adding Your Own Opinion with Adverbs

You can express your opinion about information you are citing by adding an adverb such as *interestingly*, *mistakenly*, *wrongly*, *correctly*, or *rightly* before the reporting verb.

In Ugwu (2015), Fakler **interestingly** questions whether any musical work can ever be completely original.

(The writer thinks Fakler’s idea is interesting.)

Howard (1992) **wrongly** challenges the view that patchwriting should be understood as intentional plagiarism.

(The writer thinks Howard's idea is wrong.)

Ugwu (2015) **correctly** states that copyright does not apply in the public domain.

(The writer thinks Ugwu's statement is correct.)

TASK 10 PRACTISE USING REPORTING VERBS

Use reporting verbs to fill in the blanks in the following sentences about the two articles in this chapter. Use a verb that matches the meaning as closely as possible. There may be more than one correct answer.

1. Ugwu (2015) _____ that musicians rely on the law to protect their musical compositions.
2. The view that patchwriting constitutes plagiarism is _____ by Howard (1992). (Use the passive voice.)
3. In Ugwu (2015), Fakler _____ that no musical work is completely original.
4. Bailey and Challen (2015) _____ that the difference between paraphrasing and patchwriting might be confusing for some students.
5. Ugwu (2015) _____ that musicians rely on the law to protect their musical compositions. (I agree with his statement.)
6. In Ugwu (2015), Fakler _____ that no musical work is completely original. (I disagree with his argument.)
7. In Ugwu (2015), Fakler _____ concludes by _____ we are all standing on the shoulders of giants. (I think his idea is interesting.)

EXTEND YOUR ACADEMIC VOCABULARY

Extend your knowledge of key vocabulary from this chapter.

allegedly

attribute

critically

denote

discourse

incidence

incur

infringe

underscore

*Words in bold type are AWL entries



Practise Chapter 5
vocabulary online.

REFERENCE LISTS IN APA STYLE

In Chapter 3, you were directed to Appendix 2 on APA citation style. To write APA-style reference list entries for the two articles in this chapter, you should use the formats below.

Scholarly Journal Article

Surname, Initial. (year). Title of article. *Title of Journal*, volume number(issue number), page numbers. doi:xxxxx

A Page on a Website

Surname, Initial. (year, Month day). Title of document. [Title of Site.] Retrieved from URL

TASK 11 WRITE APA REFERENCE LIST ENTRIES

Write reference list entries for the two articles in this chapter, following the APA format above.

1. _____

2. _____

Learn more about
APA reference lists in
Appendix 2.



STANDING ON THE SHOULDERS OF GIANTS

TASK 12 DISCUSS

1. The Ugwu article contains the phrase *standing on the shoulders of giants*, which was also the opening quotation in this chapter. Answer the following related questions in small groups:
 - a) What do you think *standing on the shoulders of giants* means?
 - b) Why do you think Ugwu closed the article with this quotation?
 - c) Does it help you to do academic writing when you “stand on the shoulders of giants”?
2. Look back at the exploratory writing you did for Task 1: What is academic integrity, and what is plagiarism? Are there any ideas or key concepts you have learned in this chapter that have changed your initial understanding?

EFFECTIVE SENTENCE STRUCTURE

RELATIVE CLAUSES

A relative clause defines or gives extra (non-defining) information about a thing or idea in a nearby independent clause. Defining and non-defining clauses are also called *restrictive* and *non-restrictive* clauses. A relative clause can begin with any of the following common relative pronouns (the context in which they are used is in parentheses):

- *which* (a thing)
- *that* (a thing or person)
- *who(m)* (a person)
- *whose* (possessive form)
- *what* (the thing that)
- *when* (time)
- *where* (place)
- *why* (reason)

In the following examples from the Ugwu article, focus on the relative clauses in *italics*.

Defining Relative Clauses

Copyrighted elements of a musical composition can include melody, chord progression, rhythm, and lyrics *anything that reflects a “minimal spark” of creativity and originality*.

The relative clause *that reflects a “minimal spark” of creativity and originality* is defining because it tells us *which specific things*. Without this information, the idea in the independent clause would not be complete.

Do not set off defining relative clauses with commas. Use *that* to define things; however, note that in British English, it is common to use *which* in defining relative clauses.

Non-Defining Relative Clauses

Under the Copyright Act of 1976, *which took effect in 1978*, any time a person writes or records an original piece of music, a copyright automatically exists.

The relative clause *which took effect in 1978* is non defining. It does not tell us which Copyright Act; it is giving extra, non essential information about it. Without the non-defining relative clause, the idea in the independent clause would still be complete.

In non-defining relative clauses, use *which*, and set off the clause with commas. It is incorrect to use *that* in non-defining relative clauses.

TASK 13 IDENTIFY RELATIVE CLAUSES

In the following sentences from the Ugwu article, focus on the relative clauses in italics. Indicate whether they are defining or non-defining.

		Defining	Non-Defining
1	One important instance <i>where copyright doesn't apply</i> is public domain.		
2	As was the case with Tom Petty and Sam Smith, <i>in which the latter's "Stay With Me" was alleged to infringe on the former's "I Won't Back Down,"</i> most disputes are settled privately out of court		
3	Copyright infringement is what's called a "strict liability tort," <i>which means the defendant doesn't have to have intended to infringe to be found guilty.</i>		
4	This is the "ordinary observer test," <i>what Fakler calls "the hallmark of copyright infringement"</i>		
5	Given the unreliability of sound recordings and performances in cases <i>where compositions are in dispute</i> , musicologists are often called as expert witnesses to walk jurors through sheet music.		

TASK 14 ADD RELATIVE CLAUSES

Complete the following sentences with a defining or non-defining relative clause. Follow the prompts in parentheses. Remember to set off non-defining relative clauses with commas.

- Plagiarism _____ is sometimes unintentional. (non-defining / a thing / use *refer*)
- Today, most universities provide software _____. (defining / a thing / use *detect*)
- He's the person _____. (defining / a person / use *write*)

Do Unit 4: Relative
Clauses in the
Handbook, pp. 189–194.

4. She's the person _____. (defining / possessive /
use *essay* and *win an award*)
5. Effective paraphrasing is _____. (defining /
the thing that / use *many students* and *find challenging*)
6. Thirty years ago _____ most students
wrote assignments by hand. (non-defining / time / use *be* and *no Internet*)
7. I need somewhere quiet _____. (defining /
place / use *can study*)
8. I was never told _____. (defining / reason /
use *get a C grade*)

THE WRITING PROCESS

EXTENDED WRITING: RESPONSE PAPERS

What Is a Response Paper?

A response paper is a type of essay that requires you to respond to one or more texts. Usually, you must complete some or all of the following tasks:

- show that you have understood the text as a whole
- identify the author's main claim(s) and the main idea(s) in the text
- show how the ideas interrelate
- assess the validity of the author's supporting reasons, examples, and evidence
- assess the importance of the text and topic
- show how the text fits into a broader debate
- present a balanced opinion of the ideas in the text (strengths and weaknesses, whether you agree or disagree)
- consider counter-arguments to the ideas in the text
- look for what might be missing in the text

Style in Response Papers

Response papers involve a combination of summarizing, evaluating, and arguing. To write in an appropriate style, do the following:

- Write in formal academic language (shift style if the original text is less formal).
- Balance objective language (to highlight main ideas) and subjective language (to argue).
- Use a range of reporting verbs.
- If appropriate in your subject area, use personal language to present your opinion, e.g., *I believe*, *in my opinion*.

The Response Paper Writing Process

The following are five common stages in the process of writing a response paper. You have already completed stages 1 and 2 for the response paper you will write in Task 15.

Stage 1: Skim the Text

Read the text for gist, highlight or underline the main ideas, and write notes in the margin.

Stage 2: Read the Complete Text

Follow up the skimming with a detailed reading of the text. Add to your notes as you read if you find other important information to include in your response paper.

Stage 3: Decide on Your Structure

There are different ways to structure a response paper. You can follow the original structure of the text or use a thematic structure based on relevant topics.

Stage 4: Start Writing

Once you have gone through the three stages above, it is time to start writing.

4.1 Write the opening sentence. Include the following information in the first sentence of the response paper (if the information is available):

- the title of the article
- the author's name
- the name and date of the publication
- the main topic

In the article "Here's What Makes a Song a Ripoff, according to the Law," published on *BuzzFeed* March 6, 2016, author Reggie Ugwu discusses plagiarism in the music industry.

4.2 Write the next sentences. State the main argument or idea of the article, and present your initial response to it. A good way to do this is to look at your notes for the first paragraph(s) of the article and paraphrase the main argument, with or without a direct quotation.

agree!
musicians and the law

NB: shift informal style

Music is art, and art is for people not lawyers. But musicians have long relied on the law to protect their creations. For nearly two centuries, courts in the United States have heard cases from songwriters seeking to defend their compositions from thieves, cheats, and liars of all stripes. It's a tradition that continues today—with recent disputes between Tom Petty and Sam Smith (settled amicably out of court) and the Marvin Gaye family and Robin Thicke, Pharrell Williams, T.I., et al (currently at trial) putting the modern music industry on high alert.

*key term: copyright
infringement*

*Q: influence: is this the same
as academic plagiarism?*

*important difference:
fans vs. lawyers*

In those cases, and in most disputes alleging copyright infringement of a musical composition, a few perennial questions arise: When can a person be said to own something like a chord progression or melody? And in a world where every one is inspired by someone else, where is the line between plagiarism and influence? To help us answer these questions in plain English, we spoke to Paul Fakler, a veteran copyright lawyer with a specialty in music law, of the law firm Arent Fox. What we learned underscores the gap between how casual music fans think about music, and how it's treated as a matter of law.

Example of a paraphrase:

The author begins with a paradox, arguing that music should be for people, not lawyers, while recognizing that musicians often resort to the law to protect their work. After highlighting copyright infringement as central to plagiarism disputes in the music industry, Ugwu points to two central concepts in such disputes: contested ownership and the fine line between influence and plagiarism.

Example with a direct quotation:

The author begins with a paradox, arguing that music should be for people, not lawyers, while recognizing that musicians often resort to the law to protect their work. After highlighting copyright infringement as central to plagiarism disputes in the music industry, Ugwu asks two questions that are central to such disputes: "When can a person be said to *own* something like a chord progression or melody? And in a world where everyone is inspired by someone else, where is the line between plagiarism and influence?" (para. 2).

Since the response paper is focusing on a single article, and since the date and author are introduced in the opening sentence, it is not necessary to use in-text citations every time the author is mentioned, e.g., Ugwu (2015). When you quote the article directly, include an in-text citation stating the paragraph number, e.g., (para. 2). Use direct quotations sparingly, for example, for ideas that are key to the response and which you could not express as effectively in your own words.

4.3 Write the rest of the response paper. After writing the introductory sentences of the paper, write the remaining sections or paragraphs according to the structure you chose in stage 3. Your decision on the number of paragraphs to write will depend on the required length of the paper, the structure you have chosen, and the number of main themes you have identified. Make sure to finish the paper with an appropriate concluding sentence so that it does not end too abruptly.

Stage 5: Edit Your Work

After you have finished writing your first draft, edit your work for accuracy and variety of language and for accurate representation of ideas and information. After self-editing, ask a peer to review your work.



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and critical thinking
activities online

A RESPONSE PAPER

TASK 15 WRITE A RESPONSE PAPER

Write a 200-word response paper on Reggie Ugwu's article, "Here's What Makes a Song a Ripoff, according to the Law." Follow the five stages you just studied, and use your margin notes from Task 7. Remember to use appropriate reporting verbs to attribute the ideas to their sources. When paraphrasing, be sure to change the vocabulary and grammar enough to avoid patchwriting. Write the paper in a formal academic style, changing the less formal language as needed. You do not have to include APA citations in this task.

Peer Review

When you have finished the first draft of your paper in Task 15, use the Response Paper Review Sheet to first do a review of your own work. Then ask two peers to review your work, also using the Review Sheet. Compare your self-evaluation with the peer review and look for similarities, differences, and areas to improve.

Identify useful criticism and recommendations in the reviews; revise and edit your response paper accordingly.

My eLab

Find the Response
Paper Review
Sheet in the online
Documents.

PRESENTING COHERENT ARGUMENTS

It's not bragging if you can back it up.

—Muhammad Ali

In Chapter 6, you will learn techniques to develop arguments for different kinds of academic writing. You will present key arguments to your readers and try to convince them. Arguments need to be clear and coherent, well written, convincing, and backed up with reasons, examples, and evidence. In this way, you can show confidence in your arguments and persuade your readers.

In this chapter, you will:

- read a newspaper article that discusses rehabilitation and punishment in prisons
- review shifting styles between formal and informal
- learn how to support arguments with reasons, examples, and evidence
- study personal and impersonal language of opinion
- learn to avoid logical fallacies based on cause and effect
- study rules on how to use commas correctly
- write two opinion paragraphs

TASK 1 EXPLORE THROUGH DISCUSSION

Which is more important in academic writing: effective language or convincing arguments?

Discuss this question in small groups.

THE ROLE OF PRISONS: TO REHABILITATE OR PUNISH?

In societies around the world, politicians and government officials are faced with this question when dealing with people who break laws and go to prison. Should prisons focus on punishment, create harsh living conditions, and make convicts repay their debt to society in discomfort? Or should prisons be more like schools, with a focus on education, counselling, and preparing convicts for a successful reintroduction to society after their release?

At the heart of this debate is the question of blame and responsibility. Does the responsibility for committing crimes lie solely with the individuals who make the decision to break society's rules? Or is society also partly to blame due to social inequality? This discussion has a long history and continues to generate controversy today.

TASK 2 EXPLORE THROUGH WRITING

The following quotation is attributed to the Ancient Greek philosopher Aristotle (384–322 BCE):

“Poverty is the parent of crime.”

Take five minutes to write as much as you can about the following questions:

1. What do you consider the main idea of the quotation?
2. Do you agree with this main idea? Why or why not?

ACTIVE AND CRITICAL READING

THE ROLE OF PRISONS: THE SWEDISH MODEL

Read the following article, written by Erwin James for the *Guardian* newspaper in the UK. James, now a journalist, served 20 years of a life sentence before being released in 2004.

TASK 3 TAKE NOTES

As you read, take notes on the following points:

- the main idea of each paragraph
- arguments that convince you
- arguments that do not convince you

You will refer back to your notes later in the chapter, when you write two opinion paragraphs.

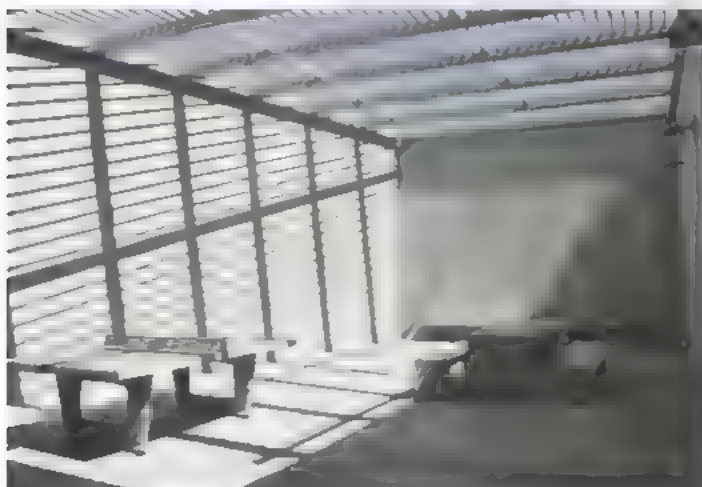
'Prison is not for punishment in Sweden. We get people into better shape'

With prisoner numbers falling and jails closing, Swedish criminal justice works, says director-general Nils Öberg

by Erwin James

deprived of: prevented from having

probation: supervised period outside prison, usually with restrictions



penal reform: improvement of the prison system

stark contrast: clear and striking contrast

mothballed: no longer in use but kept ready for possible future needs

reoffending rates: rates of prisoners committing new crimes after release from prison

rehabilitation: education, training, and counselling to prepare criminals for a crime-free life

undertaken: carried out

psychiatric problems: mental health problems

sentences: periods of imprisonment

window of opportunity: short period during which to take advantage of something

convicted: found guilty by a court

"Our role is not to punish. The punishment is the prison sentence: they have been **deprived of** their freedom. The punishment is that they are with us," says Nils Öberg, director-general of Sweden's prison and **probation** service.

Öberg, 54, is giving the annual Longford lecture on **penal reform** in London tomorrow, where he will explain how, in **stark contrast** to the UK, Sweden is closing prisons and reducing the prison population.

Since 2004, Swedish prisoner numbers have fallen from 5,722 to 4,500 out of a population of 9.5 million, and last year four of the country's 56 prisons were closed and parts of other jails **mothballed**. In contrast, the prison population in England and Wales is 85,000 out of a population of 57 million.

With **reoffending rates** at about 40%—less than half of those in the UK and most other European countries—does he attribute this success to the country's effective policies on prisoner **rehabilitation**? "We obviously believe that it is part of the explanation; we hope we are doing something right. But it's going to be very difficult to prove that scientifically. We are increasing our efforts all the time," he says.

Last year a "national client survey" of several thousand Swedish prisoners was **undertaken** in order to identify the issues that have affected their criminal behaviour. "The survey did not bring up any surprises, but it gave us confirmation of what we have learned from experience—that it is not one problem that our clients face, but two or more, sometimes as many as seven or eight different ones, including perhaps drugs, alcohol and **psychiatric problems**. And these problems did not just appear overnight. These are things that have developed over years. Most of the **sentences** in this country are relatively short. The **window of opportunity** that we have to make a change is very small, so we need to start from day one. Our strategy is to cover the whole range of problems, not just the one problem."

Unlike England and Wales, where since 2004 anyone **convicted** by the courts is categorised as an offender, the implication in the Swedish model is that sentenced individuals are still primarily regarded as people with needs, to be assisted and helped. As well as having rehabilitation at the heart of its penal policy, the other huge difference between the Swedish and UK approaches is the role of politicians.

measures: actions or policies

ramped-up: with increased intensity

breach of our constitution: failing to follow the constitution

division of labour: practice of sharing tasks among people to improve efficiency

interfere with: involve yourself in others' activities unnecessarily

retribution: punishment, often with the idea of revenge

stick to: continue, even if it is difficult

self-inflicted death: suicide

incarcerated: imprisoned

Chris Grayling, the justice secretary, has recently introduced **measures** that amount to “a **ramped-up** political emphasis on punishment rather than real rehabilitation” in prison regimes, according to Juliet Lyon, director of the Prison Reform Trust. These include forcing prisoners to wear uniform, banning books being sent to prisoners, and turning off cell lights at 10:30 p.m. in young offender institutions.

Öberg says: “A politician who tried something like that in Sweden would be thrown out of office. It would be a **breach of our constitution**—in our system that is the forbidden area. When we exercise authority over individuals, a politician cannot interfere with the administration process. In reality, there is a dialogue—politicians will tell me and my colleagues what they expect and we will do our best to achieve those goals. We have a very clear **division of labour** between the government and public administration.

“An individual politician cannot **interfere with** the running of our business. The government sets goals in a yearly letter of intent, and then the responsibility for the work is entirely ours.”

But what about public opinion in Sweden? Is there less desire for **retribution** than in the UK? “There is a lot of anger among the Swedish public when it comes to crime and criminals,” says Öberg. “But, regardless of what public opinion may be at any one time, whatever you do in the justice sector, you have to take a long-term perspective. You cannot try something one day and then change it to something else the next day—that would be completely useless. The system in our sector is set up to implement long-term strategies and **stick to them**.”

He adds, however, that the country’s well-educated population appreciates that almost all prisoners will return to society. “So when you go into a political dialogue, there is a fair amount of understanding that the more we can do during this small window of opportunity when people are deprived of their liberty, the better it will be in the long run.”

Is he hoping his Longford lecture will provide some helpful advice that may assist the UK government with its prison difficulties, ranging from overcrowding, staff shortages and a 69% increase last year in **self-inflicted death**?

“I’m very excited to be giving the lecture. But I will be very careful about giving anybody any advice. We can try to share our experiences and perhaps inspire each other a little bit, recognising that the preconditions for carrying out our work are very, very different.

My ambition is to try to tell a story about how we have come to the conclusions that we have, and explain why we have made the choices that we have made. It has to do with whether you decide to use prison as your first option or as a last resort, and what you want your probation system to achieve. Some people have to be **incarcerated**, but it has to be a goal to get them back out into society in better shape than they were when they came in.”

James, E. (2014, November 26). Prison is not for punishment in Sweden. We get people into better shape. *The Guardian*. Retrieved from <http://www.theguardian.com/society/2014/nov/26/prison-sweden-not-punishment-nils-oberg>

TASK 4 DEFEND YOUR ARGUMENTS

1. Refer to your notes from Tasks 2 and 3. Select three main arguments that you feel strongly about (they may be arguments with which you agree or disagree), and write them below. Even if you are confident of your argument, back it up with at least one reason and one example from your existing knowledge.

Argument 1: _____

Reasons: _____

Examples: _____

Argument 2: _____

Reasons: _____

Examples: _____

Argument 3: _____

Reasons: _____

Examples: _____

2. In groups of two or three, present your arguments, with the backup, to each other. Try to convince the others to agree with your point of view.

EFFECTIVE WRITING STYLE

SHIFTING STYLE

In the article above, the styles of language used by journalist Erwin James and interviewee Nils Öberg are different. As a journalist for the *Guardian*, a serious British newspaper, James's writing is characterized by formal language that would be appropriate for academic writing. In contrast, Öberg's language is more conversational, as would be expected in the context of an interview.

TASK 5 SHIFT STYLE FROM CONVERSATIONAL TO FORMAL

If you were to directly quote language from the Öberg interview excerpts in a formal academic writing task, you would not need to shift style because direct quotation requires you to use exactly the same words as the source. If, however, you decided to paraphrase the excerpts, you would need to shift style.

Below is a selection of quotations by Öberg; words and phrases in bold are more appropriate for conversational English. Rewrite each statement, changing the words and phrases in bold to a more formal style, suitable for academic writing.

1. The survey did not **bring up** any surprises.

2. These are **things** that have developed over years.

3. A politician who tried something like that in Sweden would be **thrown out of** office.

4. There is **a lot of** anger among the Swedish public **when it comes to** crime and criminals.

5. The system in our sector is **set up** to implement long-term strategies and **stick** to them.

6. So when you **go into** a political dialogue, . . .

7. We can try to share our experiences and perhaps inspire each other **a little bit**, recognising that the preconditions for **carrying out** our work are **very, very** different.

8. Some people have to be incarcerated, but it has to be a goal to **get them back out into** society in better shape than they were when they **came in**.

TASK 6 FIND EQUIVALENT PHRASAL VERBS

In spoken academic English—for example, in oral presentations—speakers often mix formal and less formal English. In such cases, they tend to use phrasal verbs more often than when writing. The excerpts below are from the James article. Imagine you are doing an oral presentation. To strike a balance between conversational and formal academic vocabulary, reword the excerpts, replacing each verb in bold with the equivalent phrasal verb.

1. They have **been deprived of** their freedom.

2. Since 2004, Swedish prisoner numbers have **fallen** from 5,722 to 4,500 out of a population of 9.5 million.

3. Last year a “national client survey” of several thousand Swedish prisoners was **undertaken** in order to **identify** the issues that have affected their criminal behaviour.

4. The implication in the Swedish model is that sentenced individuals are still primarily **regarded** as people with needs.

5. Chris Grayling, the justice secretary, has recently **introduced** measures that . .

6. He adds, however, that the country’s well-educated population appreciates that almost all prisoners will **return** to society.

7. Is he hoping his Longford lecture will provide some helpful advice that may **assist** the UK government with its prison difficulties?

DEVELOPING ARGUMENTS

The most important goal of writing effective paragraphs is to present convincing arguments to your reader.

Supporting Your Arguments

When you state arguments in your writing, show evidence of critical thinking as well as your knowledge of the broader scholarly debates around your topic as follows:

- Avoid presenting opinions as facts.
- Support your arguments with reasons, examples, and evidence.
- Consider counter-arguments and other positions in the scholarly debate
- Bring in ideas from reliable sources.
- Shift from a starting opinion to a broader, informed position.

Avoid Presenting Opinions as Facts

The example below is an opinion presented as a fact.

The role of prisons is to rehabilitate people, not just to punish them.

If you present opinions as facts, your arguments lack credibility. One way to avoid this is to use language that makes it clear to the reader this is your personal opinion, not a factual statement. Depending on the subject area and expectations of your reader, you can decide to use either personal or impersonal language for this purpose.

Personal Language

In my opinion,

I believe that

My personal view is that

the role of prisons is to rehabilitate people,
not just to punish them.

Impersonal Language

It could be argued that

It is evident that

Clearly/Evidently/

Without doubt,

the role of prisons is to rehabilitate people,
not just to punish them.

The role of prisons is
clearly/evidently/
undoubtedly

to rehabilitate people, not punish them.

With the additional language, it is now clear to the reader that this argument is an opinion, not a fact. However, as long as it remains unsupported, it may not be accepted as a convincing argument.

Support Your Arguments with Reasons, Examples, and Evidence

Add a reason to your argument so that your reader understands why you are taking this stance.

Add a Reason

I believe that the role of prisons is to rehabilitate people, not just to punish them. This is because policies that promise to get tough on crime often focus on political and economic factors rather than on helping prisoners reintegrate into society after serving their sentences.

The argument is improved because the reader now has an idea of the writer's reason for taking this stance. However, the argument can be made even stronger by adding an example.

Add an Example

For example, if a prisoner serves a 10-year sentence in a punishment-oriented environment and is released back into society without accommodation, a job, or training skills for employability, that offender is highly likely to reoffend after release and return to prison.

The argument is now more credible because the writer has provided a reason and given an example that relates to, and clarifies, the reasoning. To improve the argument even further, the writer can back up the example with reliable evidence.

Add Evidence

In this regard, a study of post-prison recidivism in 2002 across France found that 59% of former convicts were reconvicted within five years of their release, and 80% of them were reincarcerated (Kensley & Benaouda, 2011, as cited in Monnery, 2015). With reference to stricter prison regimes and recidivism, Chen and Shapiro (2007) found that harsher prisons in the US “do not reduce post-release criminal behavior, and may even increase it” (p. 24).

With the addition of evidence to the reason and example, the argument becomes more credible and is more likely to convince the reader.

Consider Counter-Arguments and Evaluate Evidence

You can do more to strengthen your argument. First, consider counter-arguments, that is, ideas that those opposed to your stance would present.

Counter-Arguments

All arguments have counter-arguments. The following are two counter-arguments to the stance taken above—arguments that people with an opposing view might hold:

- The purpose of prisons should be to punish offenders, not to rehabilitate them.
- Taxpayers should not have to pay for expensive rehabilitation programs in prisons.



If you consider counter arguments, you show your reader that you are aware of the position of your own argument within a broader scholarly debate and that you are able to consider the issue from multiple perspectives.

Evaluate the Evidence

You should also critically evaluate the evidence you have brought in to support your argument, and recognize any possible weaknesses or inconsistencies. The first evidence cited seems factual and reliable. The authors of the second study mentioned (Chen and Shapiro) are suggesting that stricter prison regimes do not reduce post release criminality and that they may even make the situation worse. In each case, many factors could be related to reoffending, such as socio-economic status, gender, level of education, living conditions, family support, mental illness, and addiction. Moreover, the relevance of studies from France and the US to the writer's context should be considered.

Include what you see as main counter-arguments and a critical evaluation of the statistics before moving on to a closing argument:

Opponents of rehabilitation-focused detention may call into question such statistics and would argue that taxpayers should not have to pay for expensive rehabilitation programs in prisons. Admittedly, behind these statistics lies a range of factors that relate to post-release criminal behaviour, including socio-economic status, gender, level of education, living conditions, family support, mental illness, and addiction. The relevance of statistics from studies in France and the US should also be considered with regard to Canadian prisons, where the contexts are different.

Present a Final Position

A closing argument is a repositioning of the original argument in light of the stages below:

- Start with an argument.
- Back it up with reasons, examples, and evidence.
- Consider counter-arguments.
- Critically evaluate the evidence.
- End with a final position.

Your final position shows in-depth understanding of your argument, consideration of other perspectives, and critical evaluation. It should offer the reader a more developed, contextualized adaptation of the initial argument. With a final position added, the entire text of the above argument would be as follows:

Initial argument
Reason

Example

I believe that the role of prisons is to rehabilitate people, not just to punish them. This is because policies that promise to get tough on crime often focus on political and economic factors rather than on helping prisoners reintegrate into society after serving their sentences. For example, if a prisoner serves a 10-year sentence in a punishment-oriented environment and is released back into society without accommodation, a job, or training skills for employability, that offender is highly likely to reoffend after release and return to prison.

<i>Evidence</i>	In this regard, a study of post-prison recidivism in 2002 across France found that 59% of former convicts were reconvicted within five years of their release, and 80% of them were reincarcerated (Kensey & Benaouda, 2011, as cited in Monnery, 2015). With reference to stricter prison regimes and recidivism, Chen and Shapiro (2007) found that harsher prisons in the US “do not reduce post-release criminal behavior, and may even increase it” (p. 24). Opponents of rehabilitation focused detention may call into question such statistics and would argue that taxpayers should not have to pay for expensive rehabilitation programs in prisons. Admittedly, behind these statistics lies a range of factors that relate to post-release criminal behaviour, including socio-economic status, gender, level of education, living conditions, family support, mental illness, and addiction. The relevance of statistics from studies in France and the US should also be considered with regard to Canadian prisons, where the contexts are different. Recidivism rates are clearly too high in many countries around the world. Although many social reasons outside the prison context may affect reoffending rates, I believe that a greater emphasis on rehabilitation through education, counselling, and employment training will enable some, but not all, ex-convicts to integrate more effectively back into society upon release.
<i>Counter-arguments</i>	
<i>Critical evaluation</i>	
<i>Final position</i>	

References

- Chen, M. & Shapiro, J. (2007). Do harsher prison conditions reduce recidivism? A discontinuity-based approach. *American Law and Economics Review*, 9(1), 1–29. Retrieved from <http://www.jstor.org.proxy.lib.sfu.ca/stable/42705508>
- Monnery, B. (2015). The determinants of recidivism among ex-prisoners: A survival analysis on French data. *European Journal of Law and Economics*, 39(1), 37–56.

TASK 7 SHIFT FROM AN INITIAL ARGUMENT TO A FINAL POSITION

First, read the example below. Then read initial arguments 1 and 2 that follow and go through the stages to develop a final position. For this task, you do not need to find evidence to support your arguments.

Initial argument: Poverty is the main cause of crime. To make societies safer, governments should give poor communities more money to address this root cause of crime.

Add a reason: The crime rate in poor neighbourhoods is higher because poor people are more likely to be unemployed, and unemployed people are more likely to commit crimes.

Add an example: A typical example would be a young person living in a poor neighbourhood, surrounded by gang and drug culture, with few work or educational opportunities. If this young person has dropped out of school and sees no opportunities to progress economically through legal means, it is quite possible that he or she will resort to illegal means of making money.

Consider counter-arguments: Opponents might argue that poverty is a factor in crime, but not the causal factor. There are many people living in poverty in the

world today, with little access to quality education and jobs. Most of them do not resort to crime to better themselves. From this perspective, responsibility lies with the individual, not in social conditions such as poverty.

Final position: Few would dispute the fact that crime is related to poverty. The question, then, is whether poverty causes crime. I would argue that there is a clear cycle of poverty and crime since this cycle is rarely seen in richer neighbourhoods. I therefore believe poverty is the key underlying causal factor in crime. Responsibility lies with government *and* the individual to break this vicious circle.

1. **Initial argument:** Sentencing juveniles to life imprisonment without parole is never justifiable.

Add a reason in favour of the statement: Those opposed to life imprisonment without parole for juveniles convicted of the most serious crimes would argue that _____

Add an example: For example, _____

Consider counter-arguments: However, people who support life imprisonment without parole for violent juvenile offenders would disagree, arguing that _____

Final position: _____

2. **Initial argument:** Mandatory sentencing requires judges to impose minimum sentences for certain crimes. It is wrong because it takes away the judge's discretion. The final decision on a sentence should always lie with a judge.

Add a reason in favour of the statement: Those opposed to mandatory sentencing would argue that _____

Add an example: For example, _____

Consider counter-arguments: However, people who support mandatory sentencing may counter that _____

Final position: _____

VOCABULARY

LANGUAGE OF OPINION

To develop arguments in academic writing, you need to be able to express your opinion, agree, and disagree, using personal or impersonal language. Your choice of form to use will depend primarily on common practice in your subject area. Another important issue for consideration is correct usage. While some phrases may have more or less the same meaning, they may be used with different grammatical structures. Some phrases can be followed by more than one structure, while others cannot. Compare the following examples of personal and impersonal language, and note the accompanying structures.

Personal Language

Examples		Structure
Expressing Your Opinion in General		
I believe (that) I think (that) In my opinion, I would argue/claim/maintain/suggest that	the purpose of prison should be rehabilitation.	Independent clause
I believe in I favour / am in favour of	rehabilitation in prisons / the rehabilitation of prisoners / rehabilitating prisoners.	Noun phrase / gerund

A gerund is a verb + *ing* that functions as a noun in a sentence, for example, "I am in favour of *recycling*."

		Structure
Agreeing		
I agree (that) I support the view that I concur with the view that	the purpose of prison should be rehabilitation.	Independent clause
I support	rehabilitation in prisons / the rehabilitation of prisoners / rehabilitating prisoners.	Noun phrase / gerund
Disagreeing		
I disagree (that) I disagree with the view that I challenge/contest the view that	the purpose of prison should be rehabilitation.	Independent clause
I am against I oppose / am opposed to	rehabilitation in prisons / the rehabilitation of prisoners / rehabilitating prisoners.	Noun phrase / gerund

Impersonal Language

Examples	Structure
Expressing Your Opinion in General	
It is evident/clear/obvious that There is no/little doubt that Few would argue with the view that	the purpose of prison should be rehabilitation. Independent clause
Clearly / Obviously / Undoubtedly / Without doubt,	the purpose of prison is rehabilitation. Independent clause
Few would argue against	rehabilitation in prisons / the rehabilitation of prisoners / rehabilitating prisoners. Noun phrase / gerund
The purpose of prison is clearly / obviously / undoubtedly / without doubt rehabilitation.	Independent clause
Agreeing	
The view that prisons are for rehabilitation should be supported.	Passive-voice sentence
The view that prisons are for rehabilitation is correct.	Be + adjective
Disagreeing	
Rehabilitation in prisons / The rehabilitation of prisoners / Rehabilitating prisoners should be opposed/challenged/contested. The view that prisons are for rehabilitation should not be supported.	Passive-voice sentence
The view that prisons are for rehabilitation is questionable / not correct	Be + adjective



TASK 8 COMPLETE PARAGRAPHS OF OPINION

Use the selected phrases of opinion, agreement, and disagreement to fill in the blanks in the paragraphs below. The phrases you use should match the grammatical structure. They should also match the overall opinion of the writer, who is in favour of prisons promoting rehabilitation without being too comfortable for inmates.

1. Personal language:

- am in favour of
- challenge the view that
- clearly
- few would argue with the view that
- should not, in my opinion, be

There is _____ divided opinion on whether prisons are for rehabilitation or punishment. Although I _____ the rehabilitation of prisoners, I _____ prison life should be comfortable and relaxing for all inmates. _____ many criminals need to be punished and that society needs to be protected from violent offenders. In sum, prisons _____ totally rehabilitation-oriented.

2. Impersonal language:

- should be supported
- should not be
- the view that . . . is questionable
- there is little doubt that
- without doubt

There is _____ divided opinion on whether prisons are for rehabilitation or punishment. The rehabilitation of prisoners _____; however, _____ prison life should be comfortable and relaxing for all inmates. _____ many criminals need to be punished and that society needs to be protected from violent offenders. In sum, prison _____ totally rehabilitation-oriented.

EXTEND YOUR ACADEMIC VOCABULARY

Extend your knowledge of key vocabulary from this chapter.

believe

challenge

concur

contest

evident

favour

oppose

question

suggest

*Words in bold type are AWL entries.

My eLab

Practise Chapter 6
vocabulary online

LOGICAL FALLACIES

A logical fallacy is a claim that is not logical and that weakens or nullifies the argument. Logical fallacies show a lack of critical thinking and should be avoided. There are many different kinds of logical fallacies; in this book, you will study four.

- misrepresentations of causal relations
- incorrect generalizations
- misrepresentations of others' opinions and actions
- other fallacies based on weak reasoning

Learning to recognize logical fallacies in the texts you read and to avoid them in your writing will make your arguments more convincing.

Logical Fallacies of Cause and Effect

Below are four examples of logical fallacies based on misrepresentations of causal relations.

- a) **Post hoc fallacy:** The post hoc fallacy misrepresents chronological sequence as causality. In other words, it is based on an assumption that because *a* occurred before *b*, *a* caused *b* to happen. Accordingly, other causal factors are not considered.
- b) **Slippery slope:** The slippery slope fallacy is a specific kind of post hoc fallacy. It is based on the assumption that if one thing *a* (often bad) happens, it will inevitably lead to a series of even worse things *x*, *y*, and *z*.
- c) **Single cause:** The single cause fallacy, also known as *causal reductionism*, involves attributing the effect of something to one single cause *a* when multiple other causes *x*, *y*, and *z* are also at work.
- d) **Wrong direction:** The wrong direction fallacy confuses cause and effect by identifying the cause as the effect, and the effect as the cause.

TASK 9 IDENTIFY LOGICAL FALLACIES

Read the following statements that exemplify logical fallacies of cause and effect. Then match them to the descriptions you have just read. Write the corresponding letter next to the statement.

Description	
1	Newly released prisoners will reoffend within six months if they cannot find work.
2	We have to get tough on plagiarism! If we don't punish students who plagiarize, they will go on to cheat when they take other courses and in their future careers.
3	The inability to use numbers causes dementia later in life.
4	The new prisoner rehabilitation workshop was a resounding success, and it led to a 50% reduction in post-release reoffending.

TASK 10 ANALYZE WAYS TO AVOID LOGICAL FALLACIES

In the article about Sweden's prison system, both the author, Erwin James, and the interviewee, Nils Öberg, use careful language to avoid expressing logical fallacies based on cause and effect. They do this as a rhetorical strategy to make their arguments more convincing.

Analyze the following two excerpts from the article, underlining language that is used to avoid any of the four logical fallacies you have just studied. Then write which logical fallacy you think Öberg is avoiding, and why.

1. With reoffending rates at about 40% . . . does he attribute this success to the country's effective policies on prisoner rehabilitation? "We obviously believe that it is part of the explanation; we hope we are doing something right. But it's going to be very difficult to prove that scientifically. We are increasing our efforts all the time," he says. [LINES 16–21]

2. Last year a "national client survey" of several thousand Swedish prisoners was undertaken in order to identify the issues that have affected their criminal behaviour. "The survey did not bring up any surprises, but it gave us confirmation of what we have learned from experience—that it is not one problem that our clients face, but two or more, sometimes as many as seven or eight different ones, including perhaps drugs, alcohol and psychiatric problems. And these problems did not just appear overnight. . . . Our strategy is to cover the whole range of problems, not just the one problem." [LINES 22–32]

TASK 11 READ CRITICALLY

Answer the following questions about more excerpts from the article that show careful use of language to present convincing arguments.

1. Last year a "national client survey" of several thousand Swedish prisoners was undertaken in order to identify the issues that have affected their criminal behaviour. "The survey did not bring up any surprises, but it gave us confirmation of what we have learned from experience—that it is not one problem that our clients face, but two or more." [LINES 22–26]

Question: Why do you think the journalist places quotation marks around the term *national client survey*?

2. Chris Grayling, the justice secretary, has recently introduced measures that amount to “a ramped-up political emphasis on punishment rather than real rehabilitation” in prison regimes, according to Juliet Lyon, director of the Prison Reform Trust. *These include forcing prisoners to wear uniform, banning books being sent to prisoners, and turning off cell lights at 10:30 p.m. in young offender institutions.* [LINES 39–44]

Question: How might the measures highlighted in italics relate to the logical fallacies you have studied?

3. But what about public opinion in Sweden? Is there less desire for retribution than in the UK? “There is a lot of anger among the Swedish public when it comes to crime and criminals,” says Oberg. “But, regardless of what public opinion may be at any one time, whatever you do in the justice sector, you have to take a long-term perspective. You cannot try something one day and then change it to something else the next day—that would be completely useless. The system in our sector is set up to implement long-term strategies and stick to them.” [LINES 55–62]

Question: There is a logical fallacy called the *ad populum* fallacy, which involves stating that an argument should be accepted because it has popular support in society, without considering broader factors. Where does Oberg address this logical fallacy in the excerpt above, and do you agree with him?

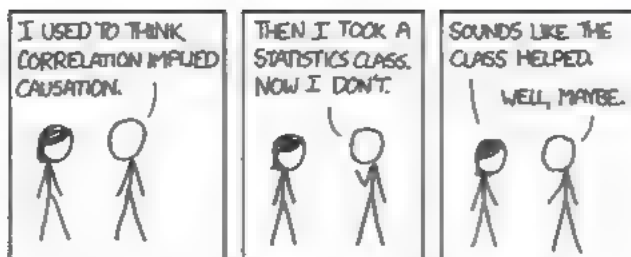
4. Is he hoping his Longford lecture will provide some helpful advice that may assist the UK government with its prison difficulties, ranging from overcrowding, staff shortages and a 69% increase last year in self inflicted death?

“I’m very excited to be giving the lecture. But I will be very careful about giving anybody any advice. We can try to share our experiences and perhaps inspire each other a little bit, recognising that the preconditions for carrying out our work are very, very different.” [LINES 68–74]

Question: Oberg recognizes that “the preconditions for carrying out our work are very, very different.” How does this statement strengthen his final position?

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Find supplementary
reading, writing,
and critical-thinking
activities online



Munroe, R. (n.d.) Correlation [Web comic]. *xkcd*. Retrieved from <https://xkcd.com/552/>

TASK 12 INTERPRET HUMOUR ABOUT LOGICAL FALLACIES

The comics opposite refer to correlation and causality, which you studied in Chapter 2. Read the comics and answer the questions below. Then discuss your answers in pairs.



Best of Matt (2016, March 31)
The Telegraph. Retrieved from
<http://www.telegraph.co.uk/news/2016/03/31/best-of-matt/>

1. Why does the student in the first comic say "Well, maybe" instead of "Yes, it did!" in the final frame? What is the humorous message?

2. How does the statement "Football has ruined money" relate to the logical fallacies you have studied? How is it humorous?

EFFECTIVE SENTENCE STRUCTURE

PUNCTUATION: COMMAS

Commas are used in sentences primarily for three reasons:

1. for adding extra, non-defining information to an independent clause (The information can be added before, inside, or after the independent clause.)
2. for coordination
3. for separating two or more adjectives or adverbs

The following example sentences are taken from the James article and exemplify these three uses of commas.

Adding Extra, Non-Defining Information to an Independent Clause

Before the Independent Clause

- An introductory phrase:

Since 2004, Swedish prisoner numbers have fallen from 5,722 to 4,500 out of a population of 9.5 million.

In contrast, the prison population in England and Wales is 85,000 out of a population of 57 million.

See Unit 3, p. 182, in the Handbook for a definition of independent clauses.

- An introductory dependent clause:

Whatever you do in the justice sector, you have to take a long-term perspective.

When we exercise authority over individuals, a politician cannot interfere with the administration process.

Within the Independent Clause

- A conjunctive adverb:

He adds, **however**, that the country's well-educated population appreciates that almost all prisoners will return to society.

- A noun phrase:

Chris Grayling, **the justice secretary**, has recently introduced measures that . . .

After the Independent Clause

- A noun phrase:

Our strategy is to cover the whole range of problems, **not just the one problem**.

- A verb phrase:

"We are increasing our efforts all the time," **he says**.

- A participle phrase:

We can try to share our experiences and perhaps inspire each other a little bit, **recognising that the preconditions for carrying out our work are very, very different**.

No comma is required for defining information.

A politician **who tried something like that in Sweden** would be thrown out of office.

Coordination

Before the "FANBOYS" Coordinators in Compound Sentences

Compound sentences are made up of two independent clauses joined by a coordinator (*for, and, nor, but, or, yet, so*).

- *and*

The government sets goals in a yearly letter of intent, **and** then the responsibility for the work is entirely ours.

Since 2004, Swedish prisoner numbers have fallen from 5,722 to 4,500 out of a population of 9.5 million, **and** last year four of the country's 56 prisons were closed and parts of other jails mothballed.

- *but*

Some people have to be incarcerated, **but** it has to be a goal to get them back out into society in better shape than they were when they came in.

The survey did not bring up any surprises, **but** it gave us confirmation of what we have learned from experience.

- *so*

The window of opportunity that we have to make a change is very small, **so** we need to start from day one.

Between the Items in Lists of Three or More Things

These include [1] forcing prisoners to wear uniform, [2] banning books being sent to prisoners, **and** [3] turning off cell lights at 10:30 p.m. in young offender institutions.

No comma is required when two things are joined by a coordinator.

We have a very clear division of labour between the government **and** public administration.

Here, the author did not use a comma before the coordinator, while in the previous example, he did. Either form is acceptable, but writers should avoid inconsistency.

No comma is required before the coordinator in lists of three or more things in British and other varieties of English.

It is not one problem that our clients face, but two or more, sometimes as many as seven or eight different ones, including perhaps drugs, alcohol **and** psychiatric problems.

Separating Adjectives or Adverbs

- Adjectives that belong to the same category (e.g., opinion, shape, colour) and come before the noun:

Prisoners are now expected to live in a **harsher, more punitive** environment.

- Adverbs:

We can try to share our experiences and perhaps inspire each other a little bit, recognising that the preconditions for carrying out our work are **very, very** different.

TASK 13 ADD COMMAS

The following are sentences about the James article, with the commas removed. Add commas where required. Then identify each comma according to its function: addition of non-defining information (ND), coordination (C), or separation of adjectives or adverbs (S).

Type of Comma

1. Journalist Erwin James interviewed Nils Öberg director-general of Sweden's prison and probation service. _____
2. Öberg gave the Longford Lecture in London where he talked about Sweden's focus on rehabilitation in prisons. _____
3. In recent years Sweden's prison population has fallen. _____
4. However that of the UK which is becoming less focused on rehabilitation has increased. _____
5. Regarding the causal effect of rehabilitation on reoffending Öberg accepts that it is difficult to prove scientifically. _____
6. Swedish prisoners who were surveyed faced problems including drug addiction alcohol dependence and mental illness. _____

Do the section on commas in Unit 5 of the Handbook, pp. 195–199.

7. In Sweden the government minister states its annual goals in a letter and the prison authorities are responsible for implementing the policies.
8. Öberg promotes a supportive educational focus in prisons.

WRITE, REVISE, AND EDIT

PARAGRAPHS OF OPINION

TASK 14 WRITE TWO PARAGRAPHS

Write two paragraphs about rehabilitation versus punishment in prisons. Refer back to the exploratory writing you did for Task 2 and the notes you took about the newspaper article for Task 3.

In the first paragraph, present the arguments that supporters of a rehabilitation approach would use. In the second paragraph, write about arguments that would be put forward by people in favour of punishment.

In each paragraph, include your personal opinion and end with a final position. Support your opinions with reasons and examples based on your personal knowledge and with what you have written and read in this chapter.

Checklist for Revising and Editing

In groups of three, review each other's paragraphs for the following:

- ☐ Clear opinion: Are the writer's opinions easy to understand?
- ☐ Supporting reasons and examples: Does the writer support arguments with adequate and convincing reasons and examples?
- ☐ Shift from opinion to final position: Is there a development from the first opinion to the final position?
- ☐ Avoiding logical fallacies: Does the writer use language effectively to avoid logical fallacies?
- ☐ Use of commas: Are commas used correctly and consistently?

WRITING ARGUMENTS IN ESSAYS

In recent years, cellphones, or *mobile phones*, have become an essential communication tool and social accessory, revolutionizing the ways that people organize their daily lives. One area where the role of cellphones is controversial is in higher education classrooms, where they can be a convenience to some and an inconvenience to others, to borrow the terms of novelist Haruki Murakami. Therein lies the controversy. Addressing controversy and presenting a position on controversial topics is a key skill in successful academic writing. This chapter focuses on argumentative writing and builds on Chapter 6, in which you studied how to present coherent and convincing arguments.

In this chapter, you will:

- practise techniques for effective keyword searches
- identify stance, opinion, and relevance in abstracts
- guess vocabulary meaning from context
- form and analyze outlines for argumentative essays
- describe the genre features of an academic blog
- write about statistical data
- consider including your life experience in essays
- study language of exemplification
- study conditional sentences
- write an argumentative essay

TASK 1 EXPLORE THROUGH DISCUSSION

In small groups, discuss the convenience and inconvenience of cellphones for learning in higher education.

PRE-READING RESEARCH SKILLS

Cellphone or cell phone? Smartphone or smart phone? The spelling of terms for recent technology often varies depending on the source or dictionary you refer to.

Cellphones as Tools for Learning in Higher Education

Many studies in recent years have analyzed the pros and cons of cellphone use in higher education classrooms. The effects of texting, Twitter, and message content on student learning were examined by Kuznekoff, Munz, and Titsworth (2015) while Katz and Lambert (2016) analyzed how the removal of students' cellphones from classrooms affected learning. In a naturalistic study of student learning, Tossell, Kortum, Shepard, Rahmati, and Zhong (2015) studied students' use of smart phones to achieve their educational goals, and Yaman, Şenel, and Yeşilel (2015) focused on English language learners, exploring the extent to which they used their smart phones for language learning purposes.

At the heart of this body of literature lies the following question: Do the potential benefits of learning with cellphones in higher education classrooms outweigh the drawbacks that come with students' constant connection to social networking sites and other distracting means of digital communication? In this chapter, you will work on the key stages of constructing a successful argumentative research essay that addresses this question. A good starting point in this process is to do keyword searches, using academic search engines to find relevant sources.

Strategies for Keyword Searches

Part of the process of positioning your arguments within the broader scholarly literature, including finding sources to support your arguments, involves performing targeted keyword searches, using academic search engines. To do effective searches, there are several issues and strategies to consider.



Keywords

Once you have decided on the general topic and specific focus of your essay, select the main keywords for your search. The following kinds of keywords can help you find relevant sources: keywords from your essay title — or from your general topic and specific focus — and synonyms of those keywords.

General Topic and Specific Focus

Before you begin your search, it is advisable to decide on your *general topic* and to narrow down the *specific focus*. The essay you will write in this chapter requires you to weigh the arguments for and against the use of cellphones in higher education classrooms. You could state your general topic and specific focus as follows:

General topic: Mobile technology and learning in higher education

Specific focus: Does allowing the use of cellphones in class enhance or hinder learning?

TASK 2 SELECT KEYWORDS

Select the keywords that you would use for a search on the general topic and specific focus stated on the opposite page.

Synonyms

In addition to the keywords above, you will find more results by using synonyms for your search. For example, instead of searching with the keyword *higher education*, you could try with the synonyms *post secondary education*, *tertiary education*, *college*, and *university*.

TASK 3 SELECT SYNONYMS

Select synonyms that you could use in addition to the keywords you selected for Task 2.

And versus Or

The most common way to join your keywords and synonyms is to use *and* or *or*. If you searched for “cellphones *or* higher education,” your search results would include articles that focus on cellphones, higher education, or both. If, however, you searched for “cellphones *and* higher education,” you would receive a smaller, more focused number of results. In this case, the search engine would provide a list of sources that focused exclusively on both cellphones and higher education.

TASK 4 EXPERIMENT WITH AND VERSUS OR

Compare the results for searches that combine your keywords and synonyms, first using *and*, then using *or*. What do you notice?

Quotation Marks

The use of quotation marks will also affect the results provided by a search engine. For example, if you search for *the effects of mobile phones on college learning* without quotation marks, you will obtain results that include combinations of these keywords in any order. If, however, you do the same search with quotation marks—“*the effects of mobile phones on college learning*”—you will receive a much narrower and more specific list of results. This is because the search engine will limit the results to sources that contain the words in quotation marks in exactly the same order.

TASK 5 COMPARE SEARCHES WITH AND WITHOUT QUOTATION MARKS

Compare the results for searches that combine your keywords and synonyms with and without quotation marks. What do you notice?

ACTIVE AND CRITICAL READING

LOCATING STANCE, OPINION, AND RELEVANCE IN ABSTRACTS

Review Chapter 1, p. 18, and Chapter 2, p. 33, to identify the following in an abstract: the main question, subquestions, background, research methods, results, and conclusion.

When you are doing argumentative writing, it is necessary to find reliable sources that support and challenge arguments. If your search yields reliable academic journal articles, you can usually find an indication of the authors' stance and opinion, and of the relevance of the article to your task, in the abstract.

In the following abstract of an article about cellphone use in higher education, the authors' stance and opinion have been highlighted in italics.

You Can Lead a Horse to Water but You Cannot Make Him Learn: Smartphone Use in Higher Education

by Chad C. Tossell, Philip Kortum, Clayton Shepard, Ahmad Rahmati, and Lin Zhong

Abstract

[1] Smartphone technology is penetrating world markets and becoming ubiquitous in most college settings. [2] This study takes a naturalistic approach to explore the use of these devices to support student learning. [3] Students that had never used a smartphone were recruited to participate and reported on their expectations of the value of smartphones to achieve their educational goals. [4] Instrumented iPhones that logged device usage were then distributed to these students to use freely over the course of 1 year. [5] After the study, students again reported on the actual value of their smartphones to support their educational goals. [6] *We found that students' reports changed substantially before and after the study; specifically, the utility of the smartphone to help with education was perceived as favorable prior to use, and then, by the end of the study, they viewed their phones as detrimental to their educational goals.* [7] *Although students used their mobile device for informal learning and access to school resources according to the logged data, they perceived their iPhones as a distraction and a competitor to requisite learning for classroom performance.*

Excerpt from Tossell, C. C., Kortum, P., Shepard, C., Rahmati, A., & Zhong, L. (2015). You can lead a horse to water but you cannot make him learn: Smartphone use in higher education. *British Journal of Educational Technology*, 46(4), 713–724. doi:10.1111/bjet.12176



TASK 6 GUESS THE MEANING FROM CONTEXT

In Chapter 1, you studied four strategies for learning vocabulary. One of these strategies was guessing the meaning from context. Guess the meaning of the following words and phrases by looking at the surrounding text for clues; then write the words that provided clues. If you already know the meaning of the word, define it and find the surrounding words that give clues as to its meaning. You may also consider English words that share the same root.

1. ubiquitous [sentence 1]: _____

Clues: _____

2. naturalistic approach [sentence 2]: _____

Clues: _____

3. instrumented iPhones [sentence 4]: _____

Clues: _____

4. logged [sentence 4]: _____

Clues: _____

5. detrimental [sentence 6]: _____

Clues: _____

6. distraction [sentence 7]: _____

Clues: _____

7. requisite [sentence 7]: _____

Clues: _____

Identifying Stance and Opinion in Abstracts

In sentences 6 and 7 of the abstract opposite, the authors state that students' perceptions of smart phone use in class shifted during the study from favourable to detrimental, with students eventually viewing their phones as having a negative effect on academic success. These two sentences at the end of the abstract present readers with the overall position of the article: that cellphones can have a negative effect on learning. Accordingly, it can be assumed that the article will provide useful data and arguments to support a stance against cellphone use in higher education classrooms.

The following abstracts are from the other three journal articles cited in the introduction on page 146. Read each abstract and answer the questions about stance and opinion that follow.



tweets· messages sent on Twitter

Mobile Phones in the Classroom: Examining the Effects of Texting, Twitter, and Message Content on Student Learning

by Jeffrey H. Kuznekoff, Stevie Munz, and Scott Titsworth

[1] This study examined mobile phone use in the classroom by using an experimental design to study how message content (related or unrelated to class lecture) and message creation (responding to or creating a message) impact student learning. **[2]** Participants in eight experimental groups and a control group watched a video lecture, took notes, and completed tests of student learning. **[3]** The control and relevant message groups earned a 10–17% higher letter grade, scored 70% higher on recalling information, and scored 50% higher on note-taking than students who composed **tweets** or responded to irrelevant messages. **[4]** Sending/receiving messages unrelated to class content negatively impacted learning and note-taking, while related messages did not appear to have a significant negative impact.

Excerpt from Kuznekoff, J. H., Munz, S., & Titsworth, S. (2015). Mobile phones in the classroom: Examining the effects of texting, Twitter, and message content on student learning. *Communication Education*, 64(3), 344–365. doi:10.1080/03634523.2015.1038727

TASK 7 READ CRITICALLY

1. Which sentences indicate stance and opinion?

2. How do you interpret the authors' position on the topic?

A Happy and Engaged Class without Cell Phones? It's Easier Than You Think

by Louise Katz and Warren Lambert

Abstract

[1] Although there have been many suggestions for incorporating cell phone use into classroom activities, there have been few suggestions for removing cell phone use from the classroom. **[2]** This article presents an easy-to-implement method using **positive reinforcement** that effectively removes cell phones from the classroom in a way that is highly **endorsed** by students and that greatly fosters

positive reinforcement: providing rewards for desired behaviour

endorsed: supported

quasi-experiment:
experiment without
random selection

student engagement, class participation, and a focused and respectful classroom atmosphere. [3] In a **quasi-experiment**, we found significant correlations between giving up cell phones and students' test grades, overall grade point average (GPA), semester's GPA, and attendance. [4] Rate of improvement of higher and lower participators suggested that better students were more likely to give up their cell phones to earn an extra point toward their final course grade.

Excerpt from Katz, L., & Lambert, W. (2016). A happy and engaged class without cell phones? It's easier than you think. *Teaching of Psychology*, 43(4), 340–345. doi:10.1177/0098628316662767

TASK 8 READ CRITICALLY

1. Which sentences indicate stance and opinion?

2. How do you interpret the authors' position on the topic?

Exploring the Extent to Which ELT Students Utilise Smartphones for Language Learning Purposes

by Ismail Yaman, Mufit Şenel, and Deren Başak Akman Yeşilel

advent: coming or arrival

in the realm of: in the
area of

to this end: to achieve
this aim

[1] The **advent** of smartphones has had dramatic influences on our daily lives and has rendered human beings 'walking computers'. [2] This holds important reflections **in the realm of** language learning, as well as in many other areas. [3] This study aimed to explore the extent to which English Language Teaching (ELT) students utilise smartphones for language learning purposes. [4] **To this end**, a 25-item questionnaire was administered to 120 Grade Three and Four ELT students at Ondokuz Mayıs University in Turkey. [5] Following the questionnaire, a follow-up oral interview was conducted with 29 of the participants on a voluntary basis in order to further investigate their perceptions of smartphones. [6] The statistical analysis of the participants' responses to the items in the questionnaire clearly shows that smartphones are actively used for language learning purposes. [7] In particular, their contribution to the development of vocabulary skills is frequently reported, which is also verified by the answers given during the interview. [8] The analysis regarding the 'gender' and 'length of the students' possession of a smartphone' variables does not yield any statistically significant effect on the degree to which students utilise smartphones for language learning purposes. [9] Given the fact that almost all students have a personal smartphone, and use it very often, and considering the findings of this study, it is suggested that students be encouraged to utilise the **invaluable** language learning opportunities offered by smartphones when put to **conscious use**.

Excerpt from Yaman, I., Şenel, M., & Yeşilel, D. B. A. (2015). Exploring the extent to which ELT students utilise smartphones for language learning purposes. *South African Journal of Education*, 35(4), 01–09. doi:10.15700/saje.v35n4a1198

invaluable: very useful

conscious use: deliberate
use for a specific purpose

TASK 9 READ CRITICALLY

1. Which sentences indicate stance and opinion?

2. How do you interpret the authors' position on the topic?

THE WRITING PROCESS

FORMING OUTLINES FOR ARGUMENTATIVE ESSAYS

Forming an Outline

After you select a range of relevant sources and take notes, you need to organize these notes and your emerging ideas into an effective outline. Your essay outline should be coherent, that is, organized logically. Two common formats for organizing ideas in an outline for an argumentative essay are *for-then-against* and *thematic* outlines. Each format organizes three types of information in different ways:

1. the pros (arguments showing the benefits of using cellphones in class)
2. the cons (arguments showing the drawbacks of using cellphones in class)
3. your position in the debate (whether you are for, against, or somewhere in between)

For-Then-Against Outlines

In a for-then-against outline, the arguments in favour and against, and your opinion, are organized and presented in separate sections. The arguments in each section should be ordered coherently, for example, from abstract to concrete, from general to specific, or according to themes.

TASK 10 ORGANIZE INFORMATION COHERENTLY

The pros and cons below are listed randomly in note form. In the corresponding boxes in the for then against outline that follows, organize the arguments in a logical order by selecting themes and grouping the arguments accordingly. Add any arguments of your own.

Pros and Cons of Cellphone Use in Higher Education Classes

Pros	Cons
<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Instant access to information• Need to embrace technology rather than reject it• Need to incorporate students' world into classes• Clear guidelines re. appropriate use can be given• Provides access to new forms of learning	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Can distract learners• Can disrupt a class and other students visually and by sound• Can make cheating easier• Results in poor note taking• Can be divisive in group work if not all students have smart phones

Introduction

- **General background information:** statistics on cellphone ownership, general statement about learning changing with technology
- **Shift to specifics:** cell phones in classes in higher education, pros and cons, research is ongoing and divided
- **Essay organization:** will look at pros and cons, give my opinion, then conclude
- **Thesis statement:** indicate stance for or against

This image shows a single sheet of white paper with horizontal blue or grey ruling lines. The lines are evenly spaced and run across the width of the page. There is no handwriting or other markings on the paper.

1. Add your current position on the subject in the My Position box. Note: Your final position may change after writing the essay sections and engaging with the ideas and arguments more deeply.
2. Look at the for-then against outline as a whole. Write what you consider to be its strengths and weaknesses, and describe the ordering principles you followed for the Pros and Cons boxes.

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Weaknesses: _____

Ordering principles: _____

TASK 12 MATCH ARGUMENTS AND COUNTER-ARGUMENTS

1. Look again at the two boxes in which you organized your arguments for and against the use of cellphones in higher education classes. Match arguments in the Pros box with their counter-arguments in the Cons box by labelling pairs with matching numbers. See the example below.

Pros	Cons
① Need to embrace technology rather than reject it	② Sometimes teachers should step back and consider new technology critically

2. How might the organization of arguments and counter-arguments in separate essay sections affect the coherence of the essay?

Thematic Outlines

It is also possible to organize your arguments thematically. In a thematic outline, the pros, cons, and your personal opinions or position are presented together in sections organized according to relevant themes. As an illustration, in the main body sections of the thematic outline below, the same arguments as in Task 10 have been reorganized under three themes: keeping up with technology, convenience and inconvenience, and effects on student learning.

A Thematic Outline

Keeping Up with Technology	
Pros	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Need to embrace technology rather than reject it• Need to incorporate students' world into classes• Provides access to new forms of learning• Many students have cellphones so they should be used• A lot of curricula now made cellphone-friendly• Students can use educational apps• Clear guidelines re. appropriate use can be given
Cons	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Sometimes teachers should step back and consider new technology critically• Need to encourage students to break free from their cyberworld and focus in class• Traditional forms of learning are not necessarily bad• Classes encouraging cellphone use can emphasize socio-economic disparity

The introduction and conclusion would be the same in a thematic organization as in a for-then-against essay structure.

My Opinion and Personal Experience	
<hr/> <hr/>	
Convenience and Inconvenience	
Pros	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Instant access to information • Students can keep up to date with world events • Students can check meaning, grammar, spelling • Students can send information to absent classmates
Cons	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Can disrupt a class and other students visually and by sound • Can distract learners • Can make cheating easier
My Opinion and Personal Experience	
<hr/> <hr/>	
Effects on Student Learning	
Pros	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Young students are used to mental multi-tasking • Useful for taking quick and accurate notes • Can foster collaboration among groups
Cons	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Results in poor concentration and focus • Students may waste time playing games or going on social media • Encourages learning with a short attention span • Results in poor note taking • Photographic notes result in poor retention and internalization of information • Can be divisive in group work if not all students have smart phones
My Opinion and Personal Experience	
<hr/> <hr/>	

TASK 13 ANALYZE THE THEMATIC OUTLINE

What are the advantages and disadvantages of organizing the outline thematically?

ACTIVE AND CRITICAL READING

AN ACADEMIC BLOG

An Academic Blog on Mobile Devices in Higher Education

The following text is from *The Teaching Professor Blog*, written by Maryellen Weimer.

How Concerned Should We Be about Cell Phones in Class?

by Maryellen Weimer, PhD

As faculty, it seems we are very concerned about cell phones in the classroom. Articles about the problem are popping up everywhere in the pedagogical literature, and they often are the “most-read” and “most commented” articles listed on various websites. Is student use of electronic devices that pressing of a pedagogical problem? I’ve been wondering if our focus on it isn’t becoming excessive.



No question, it’s a vexing problem. Research makes it abundantly clear that students can’t multitask, despite their beliefs to the contrary. Even a casual observation of them texting in class while they’re supposed to be listening and taking notes makes it clear that it’s the listening and note-taking that are getting short shrift. The question is, to what extent is this a problem for teachers and students?

Does the use of the devices make it harder for other students to focus on learning tasks? More than 60% of a diversified student cohort said it

does, according to a recent survey. However, 80% of that cohort reported using their cell phones at least once a period, with 75% saying that doing so was either acceptable or sometimes acceptable. So apparently from the student perspective, we’re not talking about a disruption they consider serious. Perhaps that’s because 92% of those in this survey didn’t believe that using their phones had negative effects.

- 25 Does the use of devices disrupt the teacher? It can. We also care that students aren’t engaging with the material when they’re on their phones, and we have leadership responsibility for the classroom environment. Both of those are justified concerns, but does some of our agitation grow out of personal offense? Students aren’t listening to us, and that’s rude. Should we be taking
- 30 this personally? People everywhere are paying more attention to their devices than to those around them.

I also wonder if it isn’t getting under our skin because most of our policies really aren’t working all that well. Students in the survey didn’t rate a university policy, a syllabus policy, a glare from the teacher, and a public reprimand

35 as all that effective. Forty percent of the students said they would still text in class even after a teacher reprimand. What did stop them from texting, they said, was a confrontational action—the teacher took their device, lowered their grade, or removed them from the classroom. Researchers didn’t ask what those confrontations did to/for the learning environment and the

40 ongoing teacher-student relationships within that class.

Are we failing to see that in some ways this isn’t about the devices, but rather about power? When there’s a policy against using phones in class and students use them anyway, that says something about how powerful we are, or

in this case, aren't. It feels like we should be doing something, but we're justifiably reluctant to make the big power moves that fix the problem when there's such a high risk of collateral damage.

Some faculty report success with redirecting use of these devices—the “if you can't beat 'em, join 'em” solution. Students are encouraged to search for material, look things up, or use their phones as clickers. Okay, that works, but you can't have students constantly looking things up throughout an entire class. Even when given the opportunity, is everybody searching for what you've asked them to find?

And is the smell of hypocrisy in the air? In conference sessions, professional development workshops, faculty meetings, and academic gatherings of various sorts, faculty are on their devices. Of course, it isn't just faculty using devices at all sorts of questionable times. Everybody is.

Lots of points, but here's the bottom line: I think we can make the use of electronic devices more important than it merits. Yes, it compromises student learning and we have a responsibility to make sure students understand what they're doing, but is it our job to prevent it? If we get too focused on the problem, then isn't that taking away time we could be using to shape our content in interesting ways and to devise activities that so effectively engage students they forget to check devices? I know it's a radical thought, but as one of my colleagues wondered, maybe the best policy here is no policy—but instead regular conversations about what learning requires.

Reference

Berry, M. J. and Westfall, A., (2015). Dial D for distraction: The making and breaking of cell phone policies in the college classroom. *College Teaching* 63(2), 62-71.

Weimer, M. (2015, October 14). How concerned should we be about cell phones in class? [Web log post] Retrieved from <http://www.facultyfocus.com/articles/teaching-professor-blog/how-concerned-should-we-be-about-cell-phones-in-class/>

TASK 14 ASSESS THE RELIABILITY OF THE BLOG

In Chapter 5, you saw checklists to assess the reliability of sources. Popular websites, blogs, and wikis were placed at the bottom of the list in terms of reliability, due to a lack of peer review and editorial control over what is published.

Look again at the blog above. Would you use the arguments presented in the blog in your essay? Do you think the blog is a reliable academic source?

TASK 15 ADD ARGUMENTS TO YOUR OUTLINE

Add any new arguments from the blog to your thematic outline on page 156.

ACADEMIC BLOGS

In earlier chapters, you studied various aspects of genre: understanding genre in Chapter 1, comparing formal and less formal genres in Chapter 3, and shifting styles when bringing in information from less formal genres in Chapter 5. In each case, you were required to consider genre features, that is, the specific ways of writing associated with different genres.

TASK 16 DESCRIBE THE GENRE FEATURES
OF AN ACADEMIC BLOG

Describe the stylistic features of this genre that differ from academic journal articles and underline examples in the text.

REVIEW: DESCRIBING STATISTICAL DATA

In Chapter 4, you studied vocabulary to describe statistical data from tables, graphs, and charts, and you wrote a paragraph about data in two bar charts that compared human and natural air emissions.

TASK 17 PRACTISE WRITING ABOUT STATISTICAL DATA

Write a paragraph to describe the data in Table 1 from the Yaman, Şenel, and Yeşilel article (see the abstract on p. 151). The table presents participants' responses to 25 questions about their use of smart phones for learning; the first 12 responses are shown below. The respondents, all English-language learners, ranked each answer according to a Likert scale ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree).

TABLE 1 FREQUENCY ANALYSIS OF THE PARTICIPANTS' RESPONSES TO THE ITEMS IN THE QUESTIONNAIRE

		1	2	3	4	5
1	The advent of smartphones has contributed significantly to my language learning process.	1.7% 2	10% 12	32.5% 39	41.7% 50	14.2% 17
2	I intentionally use my smartphone for language learning purposes.	5.8% 7	15.8% 19	18.3% 22	48.3% 58	11.7% 14
3	I use the voice recorder of my smartphone to record the lessons and be able to listen to them at a later time.	25% 30	34.2% 41	11.7% 14	20% 24	9.2% 11
4	I generally look up unknown ex c a t e m s in my mobile dictionary.	1.7% 2	1.7% 2	3.3% 4	25% 30	68.3% 82
5	The non stop advancement of technology brings un que opportunities for me to develop foreign language skills.	3.3% 4	8.3% 10	21.7% 26	50% 60	16.7% 20

		1	2	3	4	5
6	I do not like using my smartphone for language learning purposes.	47.5% 57	29.2% 35	13.3% 16	6.7% 8	3.3% 4
7	I use my smartphone to take photos and videos of important classwork in my language classes.	2.5% 3	12.5% 15	14.2% 17	36.7% 44	34.2% 41
8	Having a smartphone enables me to learn English whenever and wherever I want without any limitation.	4.2% 5	7.5% 9	16.7% 20	49.2% 59	22.5% 27
9	Having a smartphone saves a considerable amount of time in my studies of the English language.	3.3% 4	8.3% 10	25.8% 31	45% 54	17.5% 21
10	Various applications offered by the smartphones generally distract me from focusing on my English-related studies.	6.7% 8	35.8% 43	30% 36	18.3% 22	9.2% 11
11	Having a smartphone is a real problem preventing my concentration on my English-related school studies.	20.8% 25	37.5% 45	21.7% 26	13.3% 16	6.7% 8
12	Smartphones are undoubtedly among the most important tools in terms of access to information.	0% 0	6.7% 8	16.7% 20	42.5% 51	34.2% 41

CRITICAL THINKING

BRINGING IN LIFE EXPERIENCE

In Chapter 2, you studied the research process and how personal philosophical beliefs about knowledge, behaviour, and society are central to understanding the differences between quantitative and qualitative research processes. In other chapters, you also practised changing writing styles from personal to impersonal, and vice versa. One question that relates to all of these issues is whether writers should bring personal life experience into their writing. In some cases, it is appropriate, for example, if you are writing a reflection essay or personal response essay. For most other forms of writing, you should avoid referring to personal life experience.

Why to Avoid Mentioning Personal Life Experience

The first reason relates to the purpose of most academic writing, which is to show your knowledge of a subject and to enter an ongoing scholarly debate. Unless you are an expert in the subject about which you are writing, your life experience lacks academic credibility: personal experience cannot be checked in a reference list in the same way that academic references can be verified.

However, if the guidelines for a writing task explicitly state that personal life experience is required or acceptable, then it can be included. In such cases, a brief anecdote can provide interesting contextual background to your thoughts and arguments; equally, describing an event or experience in your life can contribute to an essay in which you are applying theory to real life contexts. If you do refer to personal life experience, no citations or reference list entries are required.



Find supplementary reading, writing, and critical-thinking activities online

TASK 18 ADD YOUR PERSONAL LIFE EXPERIENCE

In the upcoming writing task, you will be asked to include personal life experience where relevant. To prepare for the task, add some examples to the thematic outline on page 156.

EXEMPLIFICATION

One of the main ways to support your arguments and make them more credible is to provide examples. When writers exemplify (give examples), they commonly use the following phrases:

- *for example*
- *for instance*
- *namely*
- *such as*

The following excerpts, from two of the articles cited in this chapter, show how the authors use *for example* to exemplify.

engrossed: very interested and paying full attention

Indeed, face-to-face interaction among students appears to have diminished. **For example**, students frequently are observed to be individually **engrossed** in their cell phones before class, and that traditional time for talking with and getting to know classmates, a valuable part of the college experience, has been replaced by silence. (Katz & Lambert, 2016, p. 340)

sic: word used to indicate that a copied word or phrase is incorrect in some way

Depending upon the responses of the participants regarding the future of smart-phones, it can be said that most believe that smartphones will consolidate their place in everyday life. Student 1, **for example**, states “smartphones will become an indispensable part of human’s daily life” [**sic**]. (Yaman et al., 2015, p. 6)

In the first excerpt, the phrase *for example* is used after a period and followed by a comma and an independent clause:

For example, students frequently are observed to be . . .

In the second excerpt, the phrase *for example* is inserted into the independent clause and set off by commas:

Student 1, **for example**, states “smartphones will become . . .”

Rules for Structure and Punctuation

When you use language of exemplification, there are rules to follow regarding grammatical structure and punctuation.

For Example and For Instance

For example and *for instance* can be used interchangeably and in different positions in a sentence.

When *for example* or *for instance* comes before an independent clause (underlined), a period or semicolon precedes the phrase, and a comma follows it:

Cellphones also cause problems in classes. **For example**, they can distract other students.

Cellphones also cause problems in classes; **for instance**, they can distract other students.

When *for example* or *for instance* is inserted into an independent clause, commas set off the inserted phrase:

They can, **for example**, distract other students.

When *for example* or *for instance* comes before a dependent clause (1) or a noun phrase (2), the exemplifying phrase is set off by commas:

1. Cellphones can cause problems, **for instance**, when they distract others.
2. Cellphones have several advantages, **for example**, convenience and portability.

Namely

Namely is used to give precise information about something mentioned in the previous clause. It can be followed by an independent clause (1), a dependent clause (2), or a noun phrase (3).

1. Mobile devices have one key drawback; **namely**, they often distract other students.
2. Mobile devices have one key drawback, **namely**, when they distract others.
3. Mobile devices have one key drawback, **namely**, their short lifespan.

In sentence 1, a semicolon precedes *namely*, which is followed by a comma and an independent clause. In sentences 2 and 3, *namely* is followed by a dependent clause and noun phrase, respectively, and set off by commas.

Such As

The phrase *such as* is also used to exemplify, but it can be followed by noun phrases only. The punctuation depends on whether the exemplifying phrase is defining or non-defining.

1. Mobile devices such as cellphones and tablets can help students learn.
2. New software, such as educational apps, is increasingly used in class.

In sentence 1, *such as* defines two specific types of mobile devices that can help students learn, and therefore requires no punctuation. In sentence 2, *such as* is non-defining (it gives an example without defining the software), so the phrase is set off by commas.

TASK 19 ANALYZE THE USE OF *SUCH AS*

1. Does sentence 1 above state that all mobile devices can help students learn or that only two types can? Explain your answer.

2. Does sentence 2 state that new software in general is increasingly used in class or that just one type (educational apps) is used?

TASK 20 PRACTISE USING EXEMPLIFYING PHRASES

Fill in the blanks in the following sentences with an appropriate exemplifying phrase. Add correct punctuation.

1. Technological advances _____ wireless communication should be embraced by colleges.
2. There is a major problem with cellphones in class _____ students who use them often have reduced attention spans.
3. Cellphones allow for quick learning _____ through note taking and fact checking.
4. M-learning has been embraced by local colleges _____ five institutions have already collaborated on new m-learning programs.
5. Students can _____ use mobile devices for research.

m-learning mobile learning

EXTEND YOUR ACADEMIC VOCABULARY

Extend your knowledge of key vocabulary from this chapter.

collaboration

embrace

result in

considerable

endorse

ubiquitous

disrupt

invaluable

My eLab

Practise Chapter 7 vocabulary online

*Words in bold type are AWL entries

EFFECTIVE SENTENCE STRUCTURE

CONDITIONAL SENTENCES

Do Unit 11. Conditional Sentences in the Handbook, pp. 237–244

When writers present, support, and defend arguments, they often use conditional sentences to describe things that could have been different in the past, or real and hypothetical possibilities in the present and future. Before doing the task that follows, study Unit 11: Conditional Sentences in the Handbook to learn about zero, *first*, *second*, and *third* conditionals, and *mixed* conditionals.

TASK 21 ANALYZE CONDITIONAL SENTENCES

The following sentences are from two of the articles cited in this chapter. Read each sentence and answer the questions that follow about the time idea and concept.

1. However, if they are made aware of its benefits in detail, including which applications to choose, they can integrate this ‘magic’ tool into their learning process in a far more motivated and conscious way. (Yaman et al., 2015, p. 8)

- a) Is the time idea past or any time? _____
 - b) Is the concept a factual reality or a hypothetical reality? _____
 - c) Is the sentence a zero or second conditional? _____
2. We propose that even if students are responding to messages from others, if that activity is related to class content, those students will take better-quality notes than students responding to unrelated content. (Kuznekoff et al., 2015, p. 351)
- a) Is the time idea present or present to future? _____
 - b) Is the concept a real possibility or a hypothetical reality? _____
 - c) Is the sentence a first or second conditional? _____
3. If the act of using mobile phones was itself distracting, and presumably detrimental to learning, we would see all groups that used mobile devices having lower scores, which we did not find. (Kuznekoff et al., 2015, p. 360)
- a) Is the time idea past or present to future? _____
 - b) Is the concept a real possibility or a hypothetical reality? _____
 - c) Is the sentence a first or second conditional? _____

WRITE, REVISE, AND EDIT

AN ARGUMENTATIVE ESSAY

TASK 22 WRITE AN ARGUMENTATIVE ESSAY

Write a four-page, double-spaced argumentative essay on the pros and cons of using cellphones in higher education classrooms. Decide whether to use a for-then-against or thematic outline. Add research from reliable academic sources, and bring in your personal experience if it helps you put forward an argument.

Checklist for Revising and Editing

Use the checklist below to do a self-evaluation of your essay. Then, in groups of three, review each other's essays, using the Research Essay Review Sheet. Make any necessary revisions.

- ☐ Coherent arguments are supported with reasons, examples, and reliable evidence.
- ☐ The writer's opinions and final position are clear and convincing.
- ☐ Personal experience, if present, is appropriate and helps develop arguments.
- ☐ Examples are introduced effectively and accurately.

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PART 3

HANDBOOK: WRITING EFFECTIVE SENTENCES



TENSE AND ASPECT

What Is Tense?

We use different verb tenses to place actions and states in different time periods: past, present, and future. In the following examples, the verb is in bold and the expression of time, underlined:

I am in my third year at college <u>now</u> .	(present simple tense for present time)
I passed all my courses <u>last term</u> .	(past simple tense for past time)
I'm going to graduate <u>next year</u> .	(future with <i>going to</i> for future time)

What Is Aspect?

Aspect refers to how actions and states relate to different time ideas. There are two kinds of aspect: perfect and continuous. Perfect aspect indicates a relationship between two time periods, for example, past and present, past and past, present and future, or future and future. Continuous aspect indicates that an action is, was, or will be in progress at a certain time.

Simple tenses are normally defined as tenses with no auxiliary verbs. However, the term *simple* is used in this book with perfect tenses (which do have auxiliary verbs) to differentiate them from continuous forms, for example, present perfect simple as opposed to present perfect continuous.

Perfect Aspect

I've **lived** on campus for two years. (present perfect simple tense)

In the example above, the present perfect simple tense is used to explain a relationship between the past and the present. The speaker began living on campus two years ago and is still living there at the time of speaking. The perfect aspect in this sentence is the relationship between then and now—in this case, an unfinished period of time. The perfect aspect is formed with the auxiliary verb *have* followed by the past participle of the main verb: *I've lived*.

Continuous Aspect

I'm **studying** now. Please call later. (present continuous tense)

In the example above, the present continuous tense is used to explain that an action is in progress at the time of speaking. The speaker cannot talk now because he or she is busy studying. The continuous aspect is formed with the auxiliary verb *be* followed by the main verb + *ing*: *I'm studying*.

Perfect and Continuous Aspect Together

I've **been studying** all day. (present perfect continuous tense)
That's why I'm tired.

In the example above, the present perfect continuous tense is used to describe a continuous action in unfinished time. The studying is continuous, and the time

is unfinished (the day has not ended). The emphasis is on the present result of the continuous past action: "that's why I'm tired." This sentence has perfect and continuous aspect.

TASK 1

Read the sentences below and answer the concept questions that follow. Then discuss your answers in pairs. Refer to the summary at the end of the unit if you need help answering the questions.

Talking about the Past

- a) I've lived on campus for two years.
- b) I've been living on campus for two years.

1. Is the time idea in sentences a) and b) finished or unfinished?

2. Which sentence could give the impression that the speaker intends to stay there permanently?

- c) I used to spend hours in the library during my first year.
- d) I used to live on campus during my first year.
- e) I would spend hours in the library during my first year.
- f) I would live on campus during my first year.

3. Which of sentences c) to f) is not correct when talking about past habits, and why?

4. If you change the time idea to present and future for sentence f), what is the concept?

Talking about the Present

- g) This month, I'm working as a research assistant (RA).
- h) Sorry, I can't talk. I'm doing my RA job in the lab now.
- i) If only I had time to work as an RA and earn some money.

5. In which of sentences g) to i) is the speaker definitely not working as an RA?

6. In which sentence might the speaker not be working as an RA at the moment of speaking?

7. In which sentence is the speaker definitely working as an RA at the moment of speaking?

Talking about the Future

j) Wow! You got an A on the mock exam. I don't think you're going to fail!

k) I think I'll get good grades this year.

8. Which of sentences j) and k) is a general prediction, and which is a prediction based on present evidence? What is the evidence?

l) I'm going to take four courses next term.

m) I'll help you with your lab report if you like.

9. Which of sentences l) and m) is an intention, and which is an offer?

10. When did the speaker in sentence l) make the decision to take four courses next term: at the time of speaking or before?

11. When did the speaker in sentence m) make the decision to help: at the time of speaking or before?

TASK 2

Look again at the example sentences in Task 1. Underline any examples you find of perfect aspect and **highlight** any examples of continuous aspect. You will need to underline *and* highlight examples that represent both perfect and continuous aspect.

TASK 3

Read the paragraph below and fill in the blanks with appropriate verb forms. Use the verbs in brackets. There may be more than one correct answer for some blanks.

I _____ [live] in Korea when I _____ [be] a young child; then my parents _____ [decide] to move the family to California. I _____ [watch] TV one afternoon when they _____ [tell] me, "We _____ [move] to the United States." I _____ [remember] the day we _____ [arrive] like it _____ [be] yesterday. We _____ [fly] for 13 hours when the plane _____ [touch down] at Los Angeles airport. I _____ [visit] several other countries before, but the United States _____ [be] different. I _____ [live] in Los Angeles for 10 years now. During these 10 years, we _____ [move] house three times. At the moment, I _____ [be] really busy because I _____ [prepare] for my Grade 12 exams. If only I _____ [have] more time! My next exam _____ [be] only one week away. I think I _____ [do] OK as I _____ [prepare] well for this one. In fact, I think I _____ [pass] all of my exams. Once I _____ [finish], I _____ [visit] Florida with my family to celebrate. We _____ [plan] the trip for months. Hopefully, this time next month, I _____ [lie] on Miami Beach, and in one year, I _____ [pass] all my first-year college exams. My childhood in Korea _____ [seem] so far off now. I _____ [remember] how I _____ [spend] hours playing with my cousins during the summer holidays. Now I _____ [spend] most of my time studying!

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on tense and aspect
online

[illegible]

Tense/Form	Example	Concept
Talking about the Past		
Past simple	a) I studied too much last week. b) I had no time to relax.	a) Finished past, time idea stated b) Finished past, time idea understood
Past continuous	I was studying when you phoned me	Action in progress at a specific past time
Present perfect simple	a) I 've lived in Spain for 10 years. b) I 've attended three different colleges. c) I 've passed the exam!	a) Unfinished past I still live there. b) Life experience c) One action, with focus on the present result: I'm happy!
Present perfect continuous	a) I 've been living here for two years b) Sorry I'm late. I 've been driving for an hour c) I 've been studying all day	a) Unfinished past I still live here (can seem temporary) b) Continued action, recently finished c) Continued action, with focus on the present result: I'm tired.
Past perfect simple	When I got to the station, the train had just left .	One past action happened before another
Past perfect continuous	I had been studying all day when you arrived.	One continuous past action happened before another
Used to for past habit	a) I used to study all day during exam time b) I used to have a lot of free time at college	a) I don't do it any more (act on verb) b) I don't have free time now (state verb)
Would for past habit	I would study all day during the exam period	I don't do it any more (action verb) *Do not use <i>would</i> for past states.
Talking about the Future		
Future with <i>will</i>	a) I think you'll do well on the exam. b) Don't worry. I'll check your essay.	a) A general prediction b) An offer, a spontaneous decision
Future with <i>going to</i>	a) I think I'm going to do well on the exam just got an A on the practice paper. b) I'm going to major in Computer Science	a) A prediction based on present evidence b) A future intention, decision made in the past
Present simple for future	The next class begins in 20 minutes.	Timetable future. it's scheduled
Present continuous for future	I'm staying with my cousins next week.	Arranged future
Future continuous	This time tomorrow, I'll be taking my English exam.	A temporary continuous action at a specific future time
Future perfect	This time next week, I'll have finished all my exams.	An action finished before a specific future time
Future perfect continuous	I expect I'll have been studying for 10 hours when you get here.	A continuous action finished before a specific future time

ARTICLES, NOUNS, AND NOUN PHRASES

When you describe things in English, you often have to use articles such as *a/an* and *the* in front of the noun.

I need to borrow **a dictionary**.

The chairs in Room 3 are uncomfortable.

Other times, there is no article in front of the noun. Instead, the noun is in plural or uncountable form with no article.

Online dictionaries are convenient.

I love doing **research**.

You need to follow two stages to understand how to use articles correctly when forming noun phrases in English, and to understand how meanings can change with the different uses.

STAGE 1

GENERAL OR SPECIFIC?

The first question to ask when you use a noun phrase to describe something in English is the following: “Is the noun general or specific?”

General means that you are using a noun phrase to refer to all members of a group or category. For example, if you write “Online dictionaries are convenient,” you are referring to all online dictionaries, that is, all members of the group “online dictionaries.” This is a general noun phrase.

Specific means that you are referring to a specific thing, or specific things. If, for example, you write “The chairs in Room 3 are uncomfortable,” you are referring to those specific chairs, the ones in Room 3, not all chairs. This is a specific noun phrase.

TASK 1

Indicate whether the noun or noun phrase in bold is general or specific.

		General	Specific
1	I often get lost in libraries .		
2	I often get lost in the library .		
3	You should drink green tea when you study.		
4	The green tea I bought last week is caffeine-free.		
5	I need to find a roommate .		
6	The roommate I used to share with has moved out.		

COUNTABLE OR UNCOUNTABLE?

The second question to ask when you use a noun phrase to describe something in English is the following: "Is the noun countable or uncountable?"

Countable Nouns

Countable nouns can be used in plural form and with the articles *a/an* and *the*.

Online dictionaries are convenient.

I need to borrow **a dictionary**.

The chairs in Room 3 are uncomfortable.

Uncountable Nouns

Uncountable nouns have no plural form. They can be used with or without the article *the*, but not with the article *a/an*.

I love doing **research**.

The drinking water on campus is filtered.

TASK 2

Indicate whether the noun or noun phrase in bold is countable or uncountable.

		Countable	Uncountable
1	I often get lost in libraries .		
2	I often get lost in the library .		
3	You should drink green tea when you study.		
4	The green tea I bought last week is caffeine-free.		
5	I need to find a roommate .		
6	The roommate I used to share with has moved out.		

NOUN PHRASES

How to Form General Noun Phrases

A general noun phrase refers to all members of a group. The rules for forming general noun phrases depend on whether the noun being described is countable or uncountable. Below you will learn three common types of general noun phrase (G1, G2, and G3) and one less common type (G4). (G stands for *general*.)

Remember this rule of thumb: you should not normally use *the* in general noun phrases.

G1. Use *a/an* + the singular noun.

I need to borrow **a dictionary**.

This is general because *a dictionary* means *any dictionary*.

G2. Use the plural noun with no article.

Online dictionaries are convenient.

This is general because *online dictionaries* means *all* online dictionaries.

G3. Use an uncountable noun with no article.

I love doing **research**.

This is general because *research* means all types of research.

G4. Use *the* + the singular countable noun.

For species and inventions, and in academic analysis

G4a. A recent study found **the black rhino** to be in critical danger of extinction.

This is general because *the black rhino* means the species.

G4b. **The digital textbook** has changed how students learn.

This is general because *the digital textbook* means the invention. This form is also used with musical instruments, for example, *the piano*.

G4c. **The Vice-President Research** leads research in most universities.

This is general because *the Vice-President Research* means all VPRs when analyzing their role.

Note that the three sentences above could also be written using the G2 form and have exactly the same meaning:

A recent study found **black rhinos** to be in critical danger of extinction.

Digital textbooks have changed how students learn.

Vice-Presidents Research lead research in most universities.

However, in academic writing, the G4 form can seem more formal and analytical than the G2 form.

How to Form Specific Noun Phrases

A specific noun phrase refers to a specific thing or things. The rules for forming specific noun phrases also relate to whether the noun being described is countable or uncountable. Below you will learn three common types of specific noun phrase (S1, S2, and S3) and one less common type (S4). (S stands for *specific*.)

Remember this rule of thumb: you should normally use *the* in specific noun phrases.

S1. Use *the* + the singular noun.

The projector in Room 3 isn't working.

This is specific because *the projector in Room 3* means the specific projector in that room.

S2. Use *the* + the plural noun.

The chairs in Room 3 are uncomfortable.

This is specific because *the chairs in Room 3* means the specific chairs in that room.

S3. Use the + the uncountable noun.

The drinking water on campus is filtered.

This is specific because *the drinking water on campus* refers specifically to the drinking water available on campus.

S4. Use a/an + the singular countable noun.

There is **a writing course** on Tuesdays.

This is specific because a *writing course* means a specific writing course being held on Tuesdays. When you introduce new information like this for the first time, use *a/an*. After the first mention, you should switch to *the* + the singular countable noun (S1):

The course starts next week.

It is clear from the context that *the course* is the same specific course—the writing course on Tuesdays.

TASK 3

Indicate whether the noun or noun phrase in bold is countable or uncountable, and general or specific. Then label each noun phrase according to the categories above, for example, G2 or S4. The first question has been done as an example. Refer to the summary at the end of the unit if necessary.

1. Smart phones can be used to help learning.

☒ countable ☐ uncountable ☒ general ☐ specific Type: G2

2. If students have a smart phone, they can access a lot of information.

☐ countable ☐ uncountable ☐ general ☐ specific Type: _____

3. After I bought a smart phone, I changed how I studied.

☐ countable ☐ uncountable ☐ general ☐ specific Type: _____

4. The smart phone has changed how students learn.

☐ countable ☐ uncountable ☐ general ☐ specific Type: _____

5. We're meeting in the classroom next to the lab.

☐ countable ☐ uncountable ☐ general ☐ specific Type: _____

6. The classrooms in the South Campus are equipped for video-conferencing.

☐ countable ☐ uncountable ☐ general ☐ specific Type: _____

7. The classrooms are also air-conditioned.

☐ countable ☐ uncountable ☐ general ☐ specific Type: _____

8. We donated **the money we collected last month** to a local children's charity.

☐ countable ☐ uncountable ☐ general ☐ specific Type: _____

9. **Money** can't solve every problem, but it can help.

☐ countable ☐ uncountable ☐ general ☐ specific Type: _____

Shared Knowledge in Specific Noun Phrases

When you use specific noun phrases, you share knowledge with your listener or reader. Shared knowledge can be *explicitly stated* or *implicitly understood* in specific noun phrases.

Explicitly stated means that the shared knowledge is included in the noun phrase in the form of specifying information so that the listener or reader can understand which specific thing you are describing. *Implicitly understood* means that the specifying information is not included in the noun phrase because it is not necessary: the listener or reader can understand which specific thing you are describing from the context.

The following examples from Task 3 illustrate this difference.

The classrooms in the South Campus are equipped for video-conferencing. (shared knowledge explicitly stated)

The writer has added *in the South Campus* as specifying information to make it clear to the reader which classrooms are being described. Without this information, the reader would not understand the specific reference, i.e., which classrooms.

The classrooms are also air-conditioned. (shared knowledge implicitly understood)

The writer has not added any specifying information because the context can be implicitly understood from the previous sentence. The reader understands that *the classrooms* refers to the classrooms in the South Campus, so it is not necessary to repeat this information. Where the context is clear and can be implicitly understood, writers (and speakers) tend to avoid specifying information.

TASK 4

Indicate whether the shared knowledge is stated explicitly or understood implicitly in the noun phrases in bold. Underline any specifying information.

		Explicit	Implicit
1	The increase in college tuition fees came into effect last month.		
2	The increase was not popular with the students.		
3	TEACHER: "Can someone pass by? The video-conferencing machine isn't working." TECHNICIAN: "Which one are you talking about?"		
4	TEACHER: "Oh, sorry. I meant the video-conferencing machine in EDF25 isn't working." TECHNICIAN: "I'll send someone over to help you in the next 10 minutes."		

TASK 5

Read the following paragraph. The nouns and noun phrases in bold are incorrect. Fix the errors by writing the correct forms above the noun phrases. Then label each noun phrase according to the categories described on pages 174 to 176, for example, G2 or S4.

The Hubble Telescope

Telescope has revolutionized astronomy since its invention in the 17th century. Since then, **the astronomers** have spent years studying the universe through telescopic lenses. In 1990, **large telescope** was sent into orbit to study the universe: the Hubble Telescope **Telescope** was named Hubble after the astronomer Edwin Hubble. The images it has sent back to Earth have given us new insight into **star and planet in our galaxy**. Anyone can use **personal computer** to look at its images via the Internet. Anyone wanting to do **the research** can apply to use the Hubble Telescope. If someone sends a research proposal, a panel of leading astronomers will review **research** and its potential impact on **field of astronomy**.

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TASK 6

Read the excerpts below from the introduction (titled "Background") to the Beghi and Morselli-Labate article cited in Chapter 2 (see p. 33 for the full source).

Selected noun phrases are in bold. Analyze how and why the authors use general and specific noun phrases in this section. Label the noun phrases G for general or S for specific in the left margin. Do you notice any patterns of usage?

Background

[1] **Integrative medicine** (IM) refers to all those treatments that are not part of **conventional healthcare**. **Homeopathy** is a system of IM that was developed in Europe at the end of the eighteenth century employing **medicines** prepared according to a well-defined procedure starting from mineral, herbal or animal substances. ..

[2] According to the 2012 National Health Interview Survey (NHIS) approximately 5 million adults and 1 million children in the United States used **homeopathy** in 2011. According to the 2014 Italian National Institute of Statistics (ISTAT)

survey, **homeopathic products** have been used by approximately 2.5 million people in Italy in the years 2010–2013 and they have been prescribed by over 20,000 physicians. ...

[3] An **observational longitudinal study** conducted in Italy between 1998 and 2008 analysed the **socio-demographic features** and the **outcomes of a paediatric population treated with homeopathic medicine**. The results were promising and indicated a **positive therapeutic response**, especially in children affected by respiratory diseases (Rossi et al., 2010). ...

[4] This paper presents **the results of a retrospective controlled observational study** designed to examine health changes, expressed as **the reduction in the average number of RTI episodes per year**, of a cohort of patients undergoing homeopathic treatment versus **a control group of untreated patients**, in a real-world setting.

Patterns of usage: _____

TASK 7

Write four sentences containing general or specific noun phrases. In each sentence, use at least two nouns from each of the following lists of Chapter 2 vocabulary.

Countable Nouns

- control group
- double-blind control trial
- experiment
- expert
- participant
- patient
- result

Uncountable Nouns

- bias
- homeopathy
- medicine
- placebo effect
- popularity
- research

1. _____

2. _____

3. _____

4. _____

Category: General or Specific? Countable or Uncountable?			Form	Example	Concept
G1	General	Countable	a/an + singular noun	I need to borrow a dictionary .	Any dictionary
G2	General	Countable	Plural noun (no article)	Online dictionaries are convenient.	All online dictionaries
G3	General	Uncountable	Uncountable noun (no article)	I love doing research .	All types of research
G4	General	Countable	the + singular noun	a) The black rhino is in critical danger of extinction. b) The digital textbook has changed how students learn. c) The Vice-President Research (VPR) leads research in most universities.	a) The species: all black rhinos b) The invention: all digital textbooks c) All VPRs (analysis of their role)
S1	Specific	Countable	the + singular noun	The projector in Room 3 isn't working.	The specific projector in that room
S2	Specific	Countable	the + plural noun	The chairs in Room 3 are uncomfortable.	The specific chairs in that room
S3	Specific	Uncountable	the + uncountable noun	The drinking water on campus is filtered.	Specifically, the drinking water available on campus
S4	Specific	Countable	a/an + singular noun	There is a writing course on Tuesdays. *The course starts next week.	New information, first mention *After the first mention, use <i>the</i> + singular noun (S1).

Shared Knowledge in Specific Noun Phrases	Example	Concept
Explicitly stated	The projector in Room 3 isn't working.	The specifying information <i>in Room 3</i> makes it clear which projector.
Implicitly understood	Can someone come and fix the projector ?	No specifying information: the previous sentence makes it clear which projector.

CLAUSES AND SENTENCES

CLAUSES

TWO TYPES OF CLAUSES

What Is a Clause?

A clause can be defined as follows:

- a group of words that forms a whole sentence, or part of a sentence
- a group of words that has a subject and a verb
- different from a phrase, which does not have a subject and a verb

Clauses versus Phrases

Examples of Clauses

In the following examples, the subject of the clause is in bold and the verb, underlined.

The road works <u>led</u> to traffic congestion.	(independent clause – stands alone as a sentence)
which <u>led</u> to traffic congestion	(dependent clause – cannot stand alone as a sentence)
The city <u>introduced</u> road pricing.	(independent clause – stands alone as a sentence)
Although the city <u>introduced</u> road pricing,	(dependent clause – cannot stand alone as a sentence)

Examples of Phrases

with so much traffic congestion	(preposition phrase – lacks a subject and verb)
the introduction of road pricing	(noun phrase – lacks a subject and verb)
bringing benefits to local communities	(participle phrase – lacks a subject and corresponding verb)

Knowing the difference between an independent and a dependent clause will help you improve your sentence structure and punctuation, and make your writing more cohesive.

Learn more about
participle phrases in
Unit 6, p. 204.

TASK 1

Indicate whether the underlined words in each sentence form a clause or a phrase.

		Clause	Phrase
1	<u>Because of road pricing</u> , rush-hour congestion fell.		
2	Traffic pollution went down <u>in the following months</u> .		
3	Although <u>pollution went down</u> , car traffic remained the same.		
4	Although pollution went down, <u>car traffic remained the same</u> .		
5	Pollution fell, <u>benefiting local communities</u> .		
6	<u>Introduced last year</u> , road pricing has reduced pollution.		

What Is an Independent Clause?

As stated above, an independent clause has a subject and a corresponding verb. An independent clause can stand alone as a sentence, expressing a complete thought or idea. Independent clauses are also called *main* clauses.

Below are the two independent clauses from the preceding section. The subjects are in bold and the verbs, underlined.

1. **The road works** led to traffic congestion.



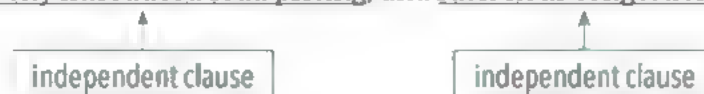
2. **The city** introduced road pricing.



Examples 1 and 2 are both complete sentences. Each has a subject and a corresponding verb. When an independent clause forms a complete sentence, it is called a *simple* sentence.

However, independent clauses often form part of a sentence rather than the whole sentence, as illustrated below. The independent clauses are underlined; the dependent clause is in italics.

1. The city introduced road pricing, and rush-hour congestion fell.



2. The road works led to traffic congestion, *which increased pollution in the area*



Sentence 1 contains two independent clauses, joined by the coordinator *and*. This is called a *compound* sentence. Sentence 2 contains one independent clause and one dependent clause. Together, they form a *complex* sentence.

What Is a Dependent Clause?

A dependent clause is called *dependent* because it cannot stand alone as a sentence. Nor does it express a complete thought or idea. Dependent clauses are also called *subordinate* clauses. As clauses, they have a subject (or a word that functions grammatically as a subject) and a corresponding verb.

Below are the two dependent clauses from the first page of this unit. The keywords that make them dependent are in bold.

1. **which** led to traffic congestion
2. **Although** the city introduced road pricing,

Learn more about relative clauses in Unit 4, p. 189

Learn more about subordinators as linking words in Appendix 1, p. 273.

Example 1 begins with the relative pronoun *which*. This makes the clause dependent. Other relative pronouns are *that*, *who*, *when*, *where*, *why*, and *what*.

Example 2 begins with the subordinator *although*, making the clause dependent. Many other subordinators make clauses dependent in this way, for example, *while*, *because*, and *unless*.

Examples 1 and 2 do not express whole thoughts or ideas. The following are two ways to make the thought or idea whole and the sentences complete:

1. Join the dependent clause to an independent clause.

The road works lasted two weeks, (complex sentence)
which led to traffic congestion.

Although the city introduced road pricing, (complex sentence)
traffic congestion remained a problem.

2. Replace or remove the relative pronoun or the subordinator.

which The road works led to traffic congestion.

Although The city introduced road pricing.

With the above changes, each dependent clause has become a complete sentence that expresses a whole idea. If written as sentences, without these changes, the dependent clauses would be *sentence fragments*, or incomplete sentences, as illustrated below:

Learn more about sentence fragments in Unit 9, p. 225

Which led to traffic congestion. (sentence fragment)

Although the city introduced road pricing. (sentence fragment)

TASK 2

Indicate whether the underlined words in each sentence form an independent or a dependent clause.

independent Dependent

1 | Due to the introduction of road pricing, there was a reduction in rush-hour traffic.

2 | Traffic pollution went down in the following months.

3 | While rush-hour traffic fell, the number of road accidents remained the same.

4 | The number of accidents did not go down.

5 | The accident rate increased on bridges, where more drivers were speeding.

Simple Sentences

When an independent clause forms a complete sentence, it is called a *simple* sentence. Below are two examples from the preceding section on clauses. Each expresses one whole thought or idea. A simple sentence must contain a subject and a corresponding verb.

1. **The road works** led to traffic congestion.



2. **The city** introduced road pricing.



Compound Sentences

When two independent clauses are joined together in a sentence by one of the "FANBOYS" coordinators (*for, and, nor, but, or, yet, so*), the sentence is called a *compound* sentence. Consider the example below, with the independent clauses underlined and the coordinator, in bold. The compound sentence expresses two whole thoughts or ideas and gives equal emphasis to each of them.

The city introduced road pricing, **and** rush-hour congestion fell.



Complex Sentences

When a dependent clause and an independent clause are combined in one sentence, the sentence is called a *complex* sentence. Consider the example below, with the independent clause underlined and the dependent clause, in italics. In this sentence, the independent clause comes second and carries more emphasis than the dependent clause. The question in parentheses illustrates the idea of emphasis.

Although the city introduced cycle lanes, pollution remained a problem. (How can we solve the problem?)

TASK 3

Identify the sentences below as simple, compound, or complex.

- The number of accidents fell.
☐ simple ☐ compound ☐ complex
- Traffic pollution went down in the following months.
☐ simple ☐ compound ☐ complex
- Although rush hour was less busy, overall traffic rates did not fall.
☐ simple ☐ compound ☐ complex

4. The local government gained revenue, but drivers were not happy.
☐ simple ☐ compound ☐ complex
5. The policy was unpopular with drivers who lived in the suburbs.
☐ simple ☐ compound ☐ complex
6. The number of accidents fell, and government revenue increased.
☐ simple ☐ compound ☐ complex

Emphasizing Information with Sentence Structure

Speakers often use intonation to give emphasis to words or phrases. In written English, sentence structure can also be used to emphasize information. In compound sentences, the ideas in the clauses are given equal weight, while in complex sentences, the idea in the independent clause often carries more emphasis when it comes at the end of the sentence.

TASK 4

1. Read the sentences below, which relate to the introduction of bicycle lanes to improve safety for cyclists. Indicate whether two ideas are given equal emphasis or whether one is emphasized over the other. If one idea is emphasized, underline the clause that expresses that idea.

	Equal Emphasis	One Idea Emphasized
a) The number of cyclists rose, and the accident rate fell.		
b) As cyclists were better protected, the number of accidents fell.		
c) Cycling became safer, but traffic remained the same.		
d) Although cycling became safer, traffic remained the same.		

2. Now compare the two sentences below. Sentence a) is the same as question b) above. In sentence b), the dependent clause comes after the independent clause.

a) As cyclists were better protected, the number of accidents fell.

b) The number of accidents fell as cyclists were better protected.

How does changing the order of the clauses in sentence b) affect your interpretation of emphasis?

Note that when the dependent clause comes after the independent clause, as in b), no comma separates the two.

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Sentence Types: Getting the Right Balance

It is important to use a range of sentence types in academic writing. If you write with a balance of different sentence types, it adds variety to your writing and makes it more engaging and readable. However, the decision about which type of sentence to use cannot be random: it depends on several factors, including how you want to add emphasis.

The following are factors to consider when choosing sentence types:

- The clauses in compound sentences often carry equal emphasis.

The city introduced road pricing, and rush-hour congestion fell.

- Complex sentences often give emphasis to the idea in the independent clause when it comes at the end of the sentence. In the following example, the independent clause, *pollution remained a problem*, receives more emphasis.

Although the city introduced cycle lanes, pollution remained a problem.

- Avoid choppy writing: too many simple sentences make it difficult to read the text and link the ideas.

The city introduced road pricing last year. Consequently, the number of rush-hour drivers fell. Moreover, the accident rate fell. The local government was pleased with the revenue raised. However, the overall number of car journeys stayed the same.

- Find alternatives to compound sentences to describe complex relationships between ideas.

1. The city introduced road pricing last year, and rush-hour congestion fell.

↑
cause

↑
effect

2. After the city introduced road pricing last year, rush-hour congestion fell.

↑
cause

↑
effect

3. The city introduced road pricing last year, which led to a fall in rush-hour congestion.

↑
cause

↑
effect

4. The city introduced road pricing last year. As a result, rush-hour congestion fell.

↑
cause

↑
effect

Compound sentence 1 is acceptable but lacks precision. Complex sentences 2 and 3 are more precise, as is example 4: two simple sentences linked by a conjunctive adverb.

TASK 5

The paragraph below contains too many simple sentences. As a result, the writing is repetitive and lacks flow. Rewrite the paragraph, forming compound and complex sentences as appropriate. You do not need to change every simple sentence.

Road Safety

Road safety is an important issue in all cities. There are too many accidents on the roads of our cities today. These accidents are mostly caused by unsafe driving. The police need to be stricter. Cyclists and pedestrians need to take more responsibility on the roads. Safe driving is the main solution. Stricter policing may work, improved driver education may provide the best solution.

TASK 6

The paragraph below contains too many compound sentences. (Note the coordinators in bold.) As a result, the writing seems simplistic in places, lacking precision and emphasis where needed. Rewrite the paragraph, forming complex and simple sentences as appropriate. You do not need to change every compound sentence.

Air Travel

Many more people travel by air than 30 years ago, **but** air travel remains too expensive for a large percentage of the world's population. In large developed countries such as Canada, the United States, and Australia, cities are far apart, **and** air travel is often the only option for travellers. Cities are connected by roads, **but** the distances and harsh climates make driving very difficult, time-consuming, and expensive. Airfares have fallen significantly in the last 15 years, **so** many more people can now afford to fly.

Type	Examples	Concept/Form
Clauses		
Independent	The city introduced road pricing.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> One whole idea Can stand alone as a sentence Has a subject and a corresponding verb
Dependent	... which led to traffic congestion Although the city introduced cycle lanes,	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Not a whole idea Cannot stand alone as a sentence Commonly formed with a subordinator or a relative pronoun Has a verb that corresponds with a subject
Sentences		
Simple	The city introduced cycle lanes.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> One whole idea One independent clause
Compound	The city introduced cycle lanes, but the congestion continued	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Two or more ideas with equal emphasis Two or more independent clauses joined by a coordinator, or coordinators
Complex	The accident rate fell, which pleased cyclists Although cycling became safer, car traffic remained the same.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Two or more ideas, with one given greater emphasis Emphasis often on the independent clause One or more independent clauses combined with one or more dependent clauses, in variable order

RELATIVE CLAUSES

What Is a Relative Clause?

Relative clauses give defining or additional information about an important idea or thing in an independent clause. There are two kinds of relative clauses: defining and non-defining (also referred to as *restrictive* and *non-restrictive* clauses). Relative clauses can begin with any of the following relative pronouns (the context in which they are used is in parentheses):

- *which* (a thing)
- *that* (a thing or person)
- *who(m)* (a person)
- *whose* (possessive form)
- *what* (the thing that)
- *when* (time)
- *where* (place)
- *why* (reason)

Defining Relative Clauses

A defining relative clause defines, or identifies, an important thing or idea in an independent clause. Defining relative clauses provide information that is essential for the reader to understand the sentence.

The computer *that I bought yesterday* was really expensive.

In the example sentence, the independent clause is *The computer was really expensive*. The defining relative clause is *that I bought yesterday*.

Essential Information

The defining relative clause is essential because it identifies the specific computer that the writer is describing. Without this information, the meaning of the sentence would not be clear or complete.

That or Which?

In defining relative clauses that describe things, it is possible to use *that* or *which* as the relative pronoun. It is more common to use *that*, especially in North American English. *Which* is more commonly used in British English:

The computer **which** *I bought yesterday* was really expensive.

Commas

Defining relative clauses are not set off with commas.

Non-Defining Relative Clauses

A non-defining relative clause gives extra, non-essential information about an important thing or idea in an independent clause.

My new computer, *which has high-resolution display*, was really expensive.

In the example sentence, the independent clause is *My new computer was really expensive*. The non-defining relative clause is *which has high-resolution display*.

Non-defining relative clauses can refer to something specific in the independent clause or to the general idea, as the following examples illustrate:

My new computer, *which has high-resolution display*, was really expensive. (extra information about the computer—a specific thing)

I spilled coffee on my new computer, *which was really careless of me*. (extra information about spilling coffee on my computer—the general idea)

Essential Information

The non-defining relative clause is not essential because it gives extra, incidental information. Without the non-defining relative clause, the meaning of the sentence would still be clear and complete.

That or Which?

In non-defining relative clauses that describe things, it is not possible to use *that*; *which* is the only correct choice:

My new computer, ^{*which*} ~~*that*~~ *has high-resolution display*, was really expensive.

Commas

Non-defining relative clauses must be set off with commas.

Relative Pronouns

In addition to *that* and *which*, several different relative pronouns are commonly used in defining and non-defining relative clauses:

- *who(m)* (a person)

1. Subject relative clause

✓ She's the teacher *who/that* taught me last year.

✗ She's the teacher *whom* taught me last year.

Do not use *whom*, because the pronoun (referring to the teacher) is the subject of the relative clause: *She taught me*.

2. Object relative clause

She's the teacher *who/that* I recommended to you.

She's the teacher *whom* I recommended to you. (more formal)

You can use *whom* because the pronoun (referring to the teacher) is the object of the relative clause: *I recommended her to you*.

You can use *that* for people although this usage is often considered informal and more appropriate in spoken English.

Often speakers omit the relative pronoun in sentences, e.g., *She's the teacher I recommended to you*. See the section on this topic on page 192.

- **whose** (possessive form)

That teacher, **whose** *name I can't remember*, taught me last term.

Whose is used mostly for people, as above, and animals; however, it can also be used for inanimate objects. This second use is grammatically possible but less common:

The library, **whose** *collection exceeds one million books*, is the largest in the city.

- **what** (the thing that)

I can't decide **what** *I should write for the assignment*.

- **when** (time)

The early evening is **when** *I can study best*.

- **where** (place)

This is the room **where** *we took a class last year*.

- **why** (reason)

The teaching assistant wouldn't tell me **why** *I got a B grade*.

Relative Clauses Containing Prepositions

There are two ways to write relative clauses containing prepositions: with the preposition at the beginning or at the end of the relative clause.

1. Did you find the book **that** *you were asking for*?
2. Did you find the book **for which** *you were asking*? (Do not write *for that*.)
3. He's the friend **who** *I went to school with*.
4. He's the friend **with whom** *I went to school*. (Do not write *with who*.)

In examples 1 and 3, the sentences end with a preposition. This is informal, conversational style. In examples 2 and 4, the relative clauses begin with the prepositions *for* and *with*. This is formal style that is appropriate for academic writing. It is common practice to avoid ending sentences with prepositions in academic writing unless the alternative form seems overly formal or awkward.

TASK 1

Indicate whether the relative clauses (in italics) in the following sentences are defining or non-defining.

		Defining	Non Defining
1	I got an A for the Economics class <i>that I took last term</i> .		
2	Let's meet in the computer room <i>where we studied last time</i> .		
3	The Economics class, <i>which was at the South Campus</i> , was really difficult.		
4	I did the project with a friend <i>who I went to school with</i> .		
5	I did the project with my school friend, <i>who was really helpful</i> .		
6	I did the project with my school friend, <i>which was lots of fun</i> .		

Omitting the Relative Pronoun in Defining Relative Clauses

It is not always necessary to include the relative pronoun in a defining relative clause, depending on whether the clause is a subject or object relative clause.

Subject Relative Clause

- ✓ I learned a lot from the instructor **who** taught *Economics last term*.
- ✗ I learned a lot from the instructor *taught Economics last term*.

In the example above, the relative clause is *who taught Economics last term*. It is a defining clause because it gives essential information about the instructor, explaining *which* instructor and thus making the idea of the sentence complete. The relative pronoun *who* cannot be omitted because it is part of a subject defining relative clause: the person being defined, the instructor, is the subject of the corresponding independent clause:

The instructor taught Economics last term.



Object Relative Clause

1. I got an A for the Economics class **that** I took last term.
2. I got an A for the Economics class I took last term.

In sentence 1, the relative clause is *that I took last term*. It is a defining clause because it gives essential information about the Economics class to make the idea of the sentence complete. In sentence 2, the relative pronoun *that* can be omitted because it is part of an object-defining relative clause: the thing being defined, the Economics class, is the object of the corresponding independent clause:

I took the Economics class last term.



TASK 2

In the defining relative clauses below, all of the relative pronouns are included. Underline the relative clause, and decide whether the person or thing being defined is the subject or object of the relative clause. Then state whether the relative pronoun can be omitted.

		Subject or Object?	Omit Pronoun?
1	The class that I was trying to enrol in was full.		
2	The course that I'm most excited about is Kinesiology.		
3	The course that interests me most is Kinesiology.		
4	The class that was the most difficult was Economics 101.		
5	The class that I studied hardest for was Economics 101.		

TASK 3

Complete the defining and non-defining relative clauses in the following sentences. If the sentence requires an object-defining relative clause, omit the relative pronoun.

1. Last week I finished my final assignment, which _____.
2. He's the friend _____ talking about yesterday.
3. Your hard work is _____ admire most about you.
4. She's the professor _____ the national award.
5. He's the professor whose _____.
6. She's the professor _____ told you about.
7. She's the professor about _____.
8. Professor Lee, _____ class I took last year, is really helpful.
9. Professor Lee, _____ won the award, is really helpful.
10. I'm looking for a place _____ study quietly.
11. I'm looking for a room _____ study quietly in.

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on relative clauses
on line

TASK 4

Write a paragraph of at least six sentences on the topic of "looking back." Each sentence should relate to one of the prompts below and include a relative clause. Try to link the sentences together coherently and cohesively.

1. A thing that you will always remember
2. A thing that you still enjoy today
3. A teacher who had a major influence on you
4. A time when you were under pressure to succeed
5. A place where you felt relaxed
6. The reason why you are studying your current subject
7. A teacher whose class you took
8. A person with whom you got along well

Examples		Concept/Form
Types of Relative Clause		
Defining	The Business class <i>that I'm taking</i> is difficult	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Essential information about something important in the independent clause No commas Use <i>that</i>. Also possible to use <i>which</i> in British English
Non-defining	The Business class, <i>which is really difficult</i> , is on Tuesday afternoons. (refers to the class) I got an A in Business, <i>which surprised me</i> ! (refers to the general idea: getting an A)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Non-essential information about something important in the independent clause or about the general idea of the clause Set off with commas Do not use <i>that</i>.
Relative Pronouns		
<i>that</i> and <i>which</i>	The computer <i>that/which</i> I bought yesterday was expensive.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> A thing
<i>who</i> and <i>whom</i>	She's the teacher <i>who</i> taught me last year. She's the teacher <i>whom</i> I recommended to you.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> A person Also possible to use <i>that</i> Use <i>whom</i> for object relative clauses: I recommended her to you.
<i>whose</i>	She's the teacher <i>whose</i> class I took last year	Possessive form I took her class
<i>what</i>	I can't decide <i>what</i> I should write for the assignment	The thing that
<i>when</i>	Let's meet in the evening, <i>when</i> it's quieter.	The time
<i>where</i>	This is the room <i>where</i> we took a class last year.	The place
<i>why</i>	The TA wouldn't tell me <i>why</i> I got a B grade.	The reason
Omitting the Pronoun in Defining Relative Clauses		
Subject defining relative clause	I like the instructor <i>who</i> taught Chemistry 199 last term.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Pronoun defines the subject of the corresponding independent clause: The instructor taught Chemistry 199 last term. Impossible to omit the pronoun
Object-defining relative clause	I got a B+ for the Chemistry class <i>that</i> I took last term. I got a B+ for the Chemistry class I took last term.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Pronoun defines the object of the corresponding independent clause: I took the Chemistry class last term Possible to omit the pronoun
Relative Clauses Containing Prepositions		
Preposition at the end of the clause	Did you find the book <i>that</i> you were asking for ? He's the friend <i>who</i> I went to school with .	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Rule: Place preposition at the end of the clause. Style: Informal and conversational
Preposition at the beginning of the clause	Did you find the book for which you were asking? He's the friend with whom I went to school.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Rule: <i>For that</i> or <i>with who</i> is incorrect. Style: Formal, appropriate for academic writing (unless awkward)

PUNCTUATION: COMMAS AND SEMICOLONS

COMMAS

THREE USES OF COMMAS

Commas are mostly used in two ways: to set off non-defining information in an independent clause, and before coordinating linking words such as *and*, *but*, and *so*. Another, less common use is to separate two or more adjectives before a noun. These rules for using commas are not always applied consistently by writers.

Adding Extra, Non-Defining Information to an Independent Clause

Note that some writers do not consistently use commas before independent clauses, especially in journalistic writing.

Before the Independent Clause

- Preposition phrases:
 - Since the 1970s**, there has been a mandatory life sentence for murder in Canada.
 - After the change of law**, many judges complained about government interference.
 - Across the country**, the crime rate has fallen.
 - With the fall in crime**, many people felt safer.
 - In universities and colleges**, criminology students are studying why crime has fallen.
- Conjunctive adverbs:
 - However**, not all types of crime have fallen continuously. Online fraud is one example.
 - Moreover**, financially motivated crimes such as theft and burglary tend to rise during economic slowdowns.
 - Therefore**, social and economic factors should be considered when reading crime statistics.
- Dependent clauses:
 - While violent crime fell**, financially motivated crime rates fluctuated.
 - If unemployment rates drop**, violent crime rates also fall.
 - Although there is a link between crime and poverty**, other factors need to be considered.
- Participle phrases:
 - Sensing a change in public opinion**, the government unsuccessfully attempted to reinstate capital punishment in 1987.
 - Influenced by recent opinion polls**, the government unsuccessfully attempted to reinstate capital punishment in 1987.

Note that some writers avoid placing conjunctive adverbs within independent clauses because they feel such usage breaks the flow of the sentence.

Remember that defining information is not set off with commas: Criminals *who commit murder in Canada* face mandatory life sentences

Adding a conjunctive adverb after an independent clause is grammatically possible but less common because such sentences may read awkwardly.

Within the Independent Clause

- Conjunctive adverbs:

Not all types of crimes, **however**, have fallen continuously.

Social and economic factors should be considered, **therefore**, when reading crime statistics.

- Non-defining relative clauses:

The death penalty, **which is also known as *capital punishment***, was abolished in Canada in 1976.

After 1976, convicted murderers, **who might previously have received the death penalty**, would receive mandatory life sentences instead.

- Non-defining participle phrases:

The death penalty, **also known as *capital punishment***, was abolished in Canada in 1976.

In 1987, the government, **sensing a change in public opinion**, unsuccessfully attempted to reinstate capital punishment.

- Non-defining noun phrases:

Youth unemployment, **a root cause of financially motivated crimes**, has gone up in the current economic slowdown.

Rates for burglary and car theft, **two of the most common financially motivated crimes**, have increased significantly.

After the Independent Clause

- Conjunctive adverbs:

Financially motivated crimes such as theft and burglary tend to rise during economic slowdowns, **moreover**.

Not all types of crimes have fallen continuously, **however**.

- Non-defining relative clauses:

Criminologists have studied the deterrent effect of the death penalty, **which is its ability to prevent other crimes**.

After 1976, mandatory life sentences applied for all convicted murderers, **who might previously have received the death penalty**.

- Non-defining participle phrases:

Criminologists often study the pros and cons of the death penalty, **also known as *capital punishment***.

In 1987, the government tried to change the law, **sensing a change in public opinion**.

- Non-defining noun phrases:

The economic slowdown has led to increased youth unemployment, **a root cause of financially motivated crimes**.

The police are targeting burglary and car theft, **two of the most common financially motivated crimes**.

To review compound sentences, see Unit 3, p. 184.

Coordination

Before the “FANBOYS” Coordinators in Compound Sentences

Compound sentences are made up of two independent clauses joined by a coordinator (*for, and, nor, but, or, yet, so*).

- *and*

Violent crime rates fell, **and** society became a lot safer.

- *but*

Violent crime rates fell, **but** those for online fraud rose.

- *so*

Mandatory life sentencing was introduced for murder, **so** the judiciary lost some of its independence.

Between the Items in Lists of Three or More Things

Stricter environments in some UK young offender institutions have resulted in inmates' [1] having to wear uniforms, [2] being denied reading materials, **and** [3] ending their days at 10:30 p.m.

No comma is required when only two things are joined by a coordinator:

Stricter environments in some UK young offender institutions have resulted in inmates' [1] having to wear uniforms **and** [2] being denied reading materials.

Separating Adjectives

Use commas to separate two or more adjectives belonging to the same category (e.g., opinion, shape, colour, material) when they come before the noun they describe:

Prisoners are now expected to live in a **harsher, more punitive** environment.

BUT

The local prison is a **big grey stone** building.

Variations on How to Use Commas

There are some variations on how to use commas that depend on the following factors.

British English

In British English, it is common to omit commas before coordinators such as *and*, *but*, and *so*, both in compound sentences and in lists of three or more things.

Violent crime rates fell with the increased police presence **and** the city became considerably safer in the months that followed.

Stricter environments in some UK young offender institutions have resulted in inmates' having to wear uniforms, being denied reading materials **and** ending their days at 10:30 p.m.

Journalistic Style

In journalistic style, commas are often omitted after introductory preposition phrases.

Since the 1970s there has been a mandatory life sentence for murder in Canada.

With the fall in crime many people felt safer.

To Avoid Confusion

Writers who usually omit commas (in British English and journalism, for example) sometimes have no choice but to include them to avoid confusing their readers. Consider the following examples:

1. With the fall in crime prevention became more of a focus than punishment.
2. With the fall in crime, prevention became more of a focus than punishment.

Sentence 1 would likely confuse the reader. This is because *crime prevention* is a common compound noun used in the discussion of crime. Without the comma, the reader might at first understand the sentence to be about “the fall in crime prevention.” Readers often have to go back over such sentences two or three times to understand them. Sentence 2 is not confusing because there is a comma after the introductory phrase.

Sometimes writers add commas for clarity, to make it easier for the reader to process ideas or items in a list when confusion might arise. For example, although a comma is not needed before a coordinator joining two items, writers may include one to make the sentence more comprehensible.

1. Harsher environments in some prisons mean inmates receive fewer comforts that would make their stay in prison more tolerable and comfortable and stricter punishments if they break any of the rules of prison life.
2. Harsher environments in some prisons mean inmates receive fewer comforts that would make their stay in prison more tolerable and comfortable, and stricter punishments if they break any of the rules of prison life.

Sentence 1 could confuse the reader because the first item is *fewer comforts that would make their stay in prison more tolerable and comfortable*. Without the comma, the reader may think that the word *comfortable* is the beginning of the second item because it comes after the coordinator *and*. By placing the comma after the word *comfortable* in sentence 2, the writer avoids any confusion.

Personal Preference

Comma usage can also depend on the writer’s personal style preferences. Writers may prefer not to use commas in some sentences if they feel it breaks the flow of the writing.

Remember: it is important to be consistent. Avoid using commas with some non-defining phrases and clauses but not with others.

TASK 1

In the following sentences, the commas have been removed. Add commas where required. Some sentences may require more than one comma; others may require none. Then identify each comma according to its function: addition of non-defining information (ND), coordination (C), or separation of adjectives (S).

Type of Comma

1. Although there is a link between alcohol consumption and crime other factors need to be considered. _____
2. During the last 30 years there has been a steady fall in crime rates in Canada. _____
3. There has nonetheless been an increase in certain crimes most notably cybercrimes. _____
4. Mandatory sentencing for the most violent crimes which takes some power away from judges has been popular with some members of the public but many judges disapprove. _____
5. Criminals who commit serious crimes in Sweden serve their sentences in a prison system that focuses on rehabilitation. _____
6. Aristotle said that poverty is the parent of crime which suggests a clear link between socio-economic factors and crime rates. _____
7. Violent crime rates have fallen across the country yet people still feel unsafe in some areas. _____
8. Crime policies aim for a safer more productive society. _____
9. The increased police presence aims to reassure people living in poor areas of the city. _____

TASK 2

The two sentences below could confuse readers. Explain why the sentences are confusing, and add commas to make them clearer.

1. After the mayor's promise to get tough on crime policies were implemented at the local level.

2. Due to the municipal government's measures to improve leisure facilities for at risk youth clubs for sport and learning were set up in three areas of the city.

TWO USES OF SEMICOLONS

Semicolons are used like periods to separate two independent clauses. Periods separate sentences; semicolons separate independent clauses in a sentence. Semicolons are also used to separate items in lists.

Separating Independent Clauses in a Sentence

Use semicolons to separate independent clauses in a sentence when the clauses contain closely related ideas. In this way, semicolons give readers a clue that the next idea is related. In contrast, use a period to introduce a new idea in the following sentence. This difference between semicolons and periods is illustrated below:

The slow food movement supports local production and consumption; it also emphasizes ethical eating. (closely related information)

The slow food movement emerged in Italy during the 1980s. The movement was originally seen as a reaction to the spread of fast food. (new information)

Semicolons and Conjunctive Adverbs

You can also use semicolons in combination with conjunctive adverbs to separate closely related independent clauses:

The fair trade movement aims to improve the lives of small-scale farmers in developing countries; **however**, some farmers receive only minimal benefits. (closely related information)

The fair trade movement aims to improve the lives of small-scale farmers in developing countries. **However**, some studies have shown that most consumers are more concerned about the price of products in their local supermarkets than about farmers' quality of life. (new information)

Separating Items in a List

You have studied the use of commas to separate three or more items in a list. If one or more of the items contain a comma, you must use semicolons to separate them. Compare the examples below:

The fair trade movement needs to find strategies to address expensive registration costs, excessive profits for intermediaries, **and** unstable product prices in world markets.

The fair trade movement needs to find strategies to address expensive registration costs, which disadvantage poor farmers; excessive profits for intermediaries; **and** unstable product prices in world markets, which fluctuate regularly.

TASK 3

The following sentences are written without semicolons. Identify any places where commas or periods should be replaced with semicolons, and rewrite these parts of the sentences.

1. The fair trade movement has commendable aims. However, it has been argued that some intermediary buyers and sellers exploit the movement solely to make money for themselves.

2. Two of the most successful fair trade products are coffee and bananas. These two alone make up a large percentage of sales in richer countries.

3. Most shoppers can find fair trade coffee, bananas, and chocolate in local stores.

4. Most shoppers can find the following fair trade products in local stores: coffee, often imported from farms in Nicaragua, Kenya, and Colombia, bananas, primarily from Caribbean islands and Central America, and chocolate, made from cacao grown in countries such as Ivory Coast and Ghana.

TASK 4

Read the paragraph below. Replace periods with semicolons when you think ideas are closely related, and replace commas in lists with semicolons as needed.

Fair Trade

The fair trade movement dates back to the 1980s. Since its origin, thousands of small-scale farmers in developing countries have benefited from membership in fair trade programs. Today, the fair trade movement faces a number of challenges: fluctuating prices for products like coffee and bananas, which affect farmers' profits, mass-produced organic food, which competes in the ethical food market in developed countries, private and government intermediaries, who receive a percentage of every sale, and certification costs, which many small scale farmers cannot afford. Certification costs should be the first problem to address. A reduction in these costs would allow more farmers to join and more profits to stay in local communities. Overall, fair trade has been a great success. However, the movement needs to become less *unfair* wherever possible.

TASK 5

Read the following paragraph, which is punctuated only with periods; it contains no commas or semicolons. Add commas and semicolons where necessary, and replace periods with semicolons when you think ideas are closely related.

Slow Food

The slow food movement is not just about eating slowly. It also relates to good and clean food. Agrillo Milano Roveglia and Scaffidi (2015) highlight two subjective factors in their definition of good food. The first is taste which relates to the subjective senses of the individual. The second is good knowledge of local culture environment and history of communities and their culinary practices. The role of promoting these values falls to local organizations called *convivia* established to educate people of all ages about “how food is produced and its production origins” (Page 2012 p. 3). Clearly the mission of slow food is to encourage lifestyles that promote good and clean food. However another important aspect is to eat in an ethically aware way.

Consumers have choices to make in their everyday interactions with food and the food industry. An example is the shopper who faces the decision to buy either a cheap mass-produced ready-made meal for microwaving or fresh local ingredients to cook the same meal from scratch. The slow food choice must be without doubt the latter.

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SUMMARY

COMMAS AND SEMICOLONS

Function	Position	Examples
Commas		
To set off extra, non-defining information in an independent clause	Before the independent clause, following: a) a prepositional phrase b) a conjunctive adverb c) a dependent clause d) a participle phrase	<p>a) Since the 1970s, there has been a mandatory life sentence for murder in Canada. Across the country, the crime rate has fallen</p> <p>b) Moreover, financially motivated crimes such as theft and burglary tend to rise during economic slowdowns. However, not all types of crimes have fallen continuously</p> <p>c) If unemployment rates fall, violent crime rates also fall. Although there is a link between crime and poverty, other factors need to be considered.</p> <p>d) Sensing a change in public opinion, the government attempted to reinstate capital punishment in 1987. Influenced by recent opinion polls, the government attempted to reinstate capital punishment in 1987.</p>
	Within the independent clause, to set off: a) a conjunctive adverb b) a non-defining relative clause c) a non-defining participle phrase d) a non-defining noun phrase	<p>a) Financially motivated crimes such as theft and burglary, moreover, tend to rise during economic slowdowns. Not all types of crimes, however, have fallen continuously.</p> <p>b) The death penalty, which is also known as capital punishment, was abolished in Canada in 1976. After 1976, convicted murderers, who previously might have received the death penalty, would receive mandatory life sentences instead.</p> <p>c) In 1987, the government, sensing a change in public opinion, attempted to reinstate capital punishment. The death penalty, also known as capital punishment, was abolished in Canada in 1976.</p> <p>d) Youth unemployment, a root cause of financially motivated crimes, has gone up in the current economic slowdown.</p>

Function	Position	Examples
To set off extra, non-defining information in an independent clause	After the independent clause, preceding. a) a conjunctive adverb b) a non-defining relative clause c) a non-defining participle phrase d) a non-defining noun phrase	a) Not all types of crimes have fallen continuously, however . b) Criminologists have studied the deterrent effect of the death penalty, which is its ability to prevent other crimes . c) Criminologists often study the pros and cons of the death penalty, also known as capital punishment . d) The police are targeting burglary and car theft, two of the most common financially motivated crimes .
Coordination	Before the FANBOYS coordinators in compound sentences	Violent crime rates fell, and society became a lot safer. Violent crime rates fell, but those for online fraud rose. Mandatory life sentencing was introduced for murder, so the judiciary lost some of its independence.
	Between the items in lists of three or more things	Stricter environments mean inmates wear uniforms, books are limited, and lights are turned off at 10:30 p.m.
To separate adjectives before a noun	Between two or more adjectives of the same category	Prisoners are now expected to live in a harsher, more punitive environment.
Variations		
British English (omission of commas)	Before coordinators in compound sentences	Violent crime rates fell with the increased police presence and the city became safer in the months that followed.
	Before coordinators in lists of three or more things	Stricter environments mean inmates wear uniforms, books are limited and lights are turned off at 10:30 p.m.
Journalistic style (omission of commas)	After introductory preposition phrases	Since the 1970s there has been a mandatory life sentence for murder in Canada. With the fall in crime many people felt safer.
To avoid confusion (writers who usually omit commas)	After introductory phrases	With the fall in crime , prevention became more of a focus than punishment. (less confusing than "With the fall in crime prevention became ...")
	Before coordinators that join two items	Inmates receive fewer comforts to make their stay in prison more tolerable and comfortable, and stricter punishments if they break any of the rules of prison life.
Personal preference	Writers may prefer not to use commas in some sentences if they feel it breaks the flow of the writing	
Semicolons		
To separate independent clauses containing closely related information in a sentence	Between the independent clauses	The slow food movement supports local production and consumption; it also emphasizes ethical eating.
	After the first independent clause and before a conjunctive adverb	The fair trade movement aims to improve the lives of small scale farmers in developing countries; however , some farmers receive only minimal benefits.
To separate three or more items in a list if one or more of the items contain a comma	Between the items in the list	The fair trade movement needs to find strategies to address expensive registration costs, which disadvantage poor farmers; excessive profits for intermediaries; and unstable product prices in world markets, which fluctuate regularly.

PARTICIPLE PHRASES

What Is a Participle Phrase?

Participle phrases (often called *participle clauses*) are similar to relative clauses. Both add information (defining or non-defining) about a thing or things in a related independent clause. Participle phrases follow the same rules of punctuation as those for relative clauses: commas are used to set off non-defining phrases, but not defining ones.

Participle phrases can be understood as reduced relative clauses. They express the same ideas as relative clauses, but in fewer words. In this way, participle phrases can give a sense of economy and add variety to your sentence structure.

The following examples illustrate how the relative clause (in *italics*) in sentence 1 can be reduced to a participle phrase (in **bold**) in sentence 2:

1. Fair trade products will become fairer when commodity producers receive a higher price, *which will bring benefits to local communities*.
2. Fair trade products will become fairer when commodity producers receive a higher price, **bringing benefits to local communities**.

In sentence 2, the present participle phrase *bringing benefits to local communities* expresses the idea conveyed by the relative clause in sentence 1, *which will bring benefits to local communities*.

Sentence 2 also illustrates an important feature of participle phrases, that is, the relationship between present and past participles does not correlate with present and past time. As can be seen in sentence 2, the present participle *bringing* refers to future time: “which will bring.”

Present and Past Participle Phrases

As stated, the difference between present and past participle phrases does not relate to time. Present participle phrases are used as an alternative for clauses in the active voice, and past participle phrases, as an alternative for clauses in the passive voice.

The following sentences illustrate this difference.

Present Participle Phrases

1. Many registered fair trade coffee producers **living in Nicaragua** have invested in high registration costs in the hope of future benefits. (defining)
2. **Aiming for increased benefits for local communities**, Nicaraguan fair trade coffee producers campaigned for lower registration fees. (non-defining)

3. Fair trade producers will increase their market share in developed countries during the next 10 years, **leading to an increase in local development.** (non-defining)

Form: In the three phrases, the present participles are formed by adding *ing* to the verbs: *living*, *aiming*, and *leading*.

Concept: In the three example sentences, the participle phrases are used to convey the following meanings:

- Sentence 1: The participle phrase means “who live in.”
- Sentence 2: The participle phrase means “because they were aiming for.”
- Sentence 3: The participle phrase means “which will lead to” or “and it will lead to.”

Time idea: Present participle phrases can be used with reference to past, present, or future time.

- Sentence 1 refers to present time: “who live in.”
- Sentence 2 refers to past time: “because they were aiming for.”
- Sentence 3 refers to future time: “which will lead to” or “and it will lead to.”

Active voice: Present participle phrases are used in sentences in which the idea of the sentence would otherwise be expressed in an active-voice clause, as illustrated below.

Participle Phrase	Active-Voice Clause
Many registered fair trade coffee producers living in Nicaragua have invested in high registration costs in the hope of future benefits.	Many registered fair trade coffee producers who live in Nicaragua ...
Aiming for increased benefits for local communities. Nicaraguan fair trade coffee producers campaigned for lower registration fees.	Because they were aiming for increased benefits for local communities, ...
Fair trade producers will increase their market share in developed countries during the next 10 years, leading to an increase in local development.	... which will lead to an increase in local development

Past Participle Phrases

1. The Fairtrade Labelling Organizations International (FLO), **set up in 1997**, coordinates registration and standards across the fair trade movement. (non-defining)
2. The FLO believes that money **received by local farmers** helps local communities to develop. (defining)
3. In the future, conscientious consumers will find an increasing variety of products **marked with fair trade logos.** (defining)

Form: In the three phrases, the first past participle is irregular (*set up*) while the second and third are regular, formed by adding *d* or *ed* to the verbs: *received*, *marked*.

Concept: In the three example sentences, the past participle phrases convey meaning in the same way as passive-voice sentences with regard to stated and unstated agents (the people or things doing the action).

- Sentence 1: The participle phrase *set up in 1997* has no stated agent as the agent is unknown or unimportant for the sentence.
- Sentence 2: The participle phrase *received by local farmers* emphasizes the stated agents (local farmers).
- Sentence 3: The participle phrase *marked with fair trade logos* has no stated agent as the agent is unimportant for the sentence.

Time idea: Past participle phrases can be used with reference to past, present, or future time.

- Sentence 1 refers to past time: “which was set up in.”
- Sentence 2 refers to present time: “that is received by.”
- Sentence 3 refers to future time: “that will be marked with.”

Passive voice: Past participle phrases are used in sentences in which the idea of the sentence would otherwise be expressed in a passive-voice clause, as illustrated below.

Participle Phrase	Passive-Voice Clause
The Fairtrade Labelling Organizations International (FLO), set up in 1997 , coordinates registration and standards across the fair trade movement.	The Fairtrade Labelling Organizations International (FLO), which was set up in 1997,...
The FLO believes that money received by local farmers helps local communities to develop.	The FLO believes that money that is received by local farmers...
In the future, conscientious consumers will find an increasing variety of products marked with fair trade logos products that will be marked with fair trade logos.

TASK 1

Underline the participle phrase in each of the following sentences. Decide whether the participle phrase is replacing a clause in the active or passive voice and whether the participle phrase is present or past. Then state the time idea.

- The slow food movement, originating in the 1980s, was a response to the spread of fast food restaurants in Italy.
☐ active voice ☐ passive voice ☐ present participle ☐ past participle
 Time idea: _____
- Slow Food International, launched in 2001, brought greater worldwide attention to the movement.
☐ active voice ☐ passive voice ☐ present participle ☐ past participle
 Time idea: _____
- Slow food promotes good, clean, and fair food for all, bringing together appreciation for the taste, culture, and local origins of food.
☐ active voice ☐ passive voice ☐ present participle ☐ past participle
 Time idea: _____

4. At slow food events, food produced by local farmers is showcased.

☐ active voice ☐ passive voice ☐ present participle ☐ past participle

Time idea: _____

5. In the future, it is hoped that slow food will spread globally, gaining a greater presence in large countries such as India and China.

☐ active voice ☐ passive voice ☐ present participle ☐ past participle

Time idea: _____

6. The benefits of ethical eating will be the focus of slow food events organized by future members of the movement.

☐ active voice ☐ passive voice ☐ present participle ☐ past participle

Time idea: _____

TASK 2

The following sentences contain relative clauses (in italics). First, rewrite each sentence, reducing the relative clause to a participle phrase. Then decide whether the participle phrase is replacing a clause in the active or passive voice and whether the participle phrase is present or past. Finally, state the time idea.

1. The fair trade movement, *which supports small-scale farmers and sustainability*, has a worldwide presence.

☐ active voice ☐ passive voice ☐ present participle ☐ past participle

Time idea: _____

2. Fair trade coffee and bananas, *which are grown primarily in Latin America and Africa*, are two of the best-selling products.

☐ active voice ☐ passive voice ☐ present participle ☐ past participle

Time idea: _____

3. A future goal of fair trade will be to tackle poverty more aggressively, *which will raise awareness of the need for a living wage for all farmers and their employees*.

☐ active voice ☐ passive voice ☐ present participle ☐ past participle

Time idea: _____

4. The move toward a living wage in fair trade will involve governments and international organizations as well as thousands of new farmers *who will be registered and certified as fair trade producers*.

☐ active voice ☐ passive voice ☐ present participle ☐ past participle

Time idea: _____

5. In world markets *that are dominated by free trade*, the growth of fair trade alternatives may be slow.

☐ active voice ☐ passive voice ☐ present participle ☐ past participle

Time idea: _____

6. Regulators need to address the problem of price reduction due to overproduction, *which occurs when farmers receive a premium for their product, overproduce, and thus create surpluses*.

☐ active voice ☐ passive voice ☐ present participle ☐ past participle

Time idea: _____

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TASK 3

Read the following excerpt and decide whether the words in bold form a participle phrase. Explain why or why not.

In the coffee industry, for example, from the early 1990s, four transnational companies—Nestlé, Phillip Morris, Sara Lee and Procter & Gamble—**accounted for more than 60 per cent of coffee sales in the major consuming markets**

Excerpts from Suranovic, S. (2015). The meaning of fair trade. In L. T. Reynolds, & E. A. Bennett (Eds.), *Handbook of research on fair trade* (pp. 45–60). Cheltenham, UK: Edward Elgar

Participle phrase? ☐ Yes ☐ No

Why or why not?

Type	Example	Concept/Form
Defining	Many registered fair trade coffee producers living in Nicaragua have invested in high registration costs in the hope of future benefits.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Essential information defining which coffee producers • No commas
Non-defining	The Fairtrade Labeling Organizations International (FLO), set up in 1997 , coordinates registration and standards across the fair trade movement.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Non-essential information about the FLO • Set off with commas
Present Participle Phrases		
Present participle phrases	Many registered fair trade coffee producers living in Nicaragua have invested in high registration costs in the hope of future benefits.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Defining • Active-voice clause: "who live in Nicaragua" • Present time
	Aiming for increased benefits for local communities , Nicaraguan fair trade coffee producers campaigned for lower registration fees.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Non-defining • Active voice clause: "because they were aiming for ..." • Past time
	Fair trade producers will increase their market share in developed countries during the next 10 years, leading to an increase in local development .	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Non-defining • Active voice clause: "which will lead to / and it will lead to ..." • Future time
Past Participle Phrases		
Past participle phrases	The Fairtrade Labeling Organizations International (FLO), set up in 1997 , coordinates registration and standards across the fair trade movement.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Non-defining • Passive-voice clause: "which was set up" • Past time
	The FLO believes that money received by local farmers helps local communities to develop.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Defining • Passive-voice clause: "that is received by local farmers" • Present time
	In the future, conscientious consumers will find an increasing variety of products marked with fair trade logos .	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Defining • Passive-voice clause: "that will be marked with fair trade logos" • Future time

THE PASSIVE VOICE

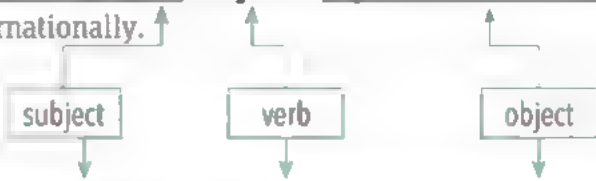
The passive voice is commonly used in many forms of academic writing, particularly in forms that require an objective, scientific tone. Writing a sentence in the active or passive voice does not change the meaning. However, your choice to use one or the other can affect the tone that readers detect; it can also change the emphasis of information in the sentence in different ways.

Active and Passive Voice

The following examples show how to transform sentences in the active voice to the passive voice.

Active Voice

Active-voice sentences are formed with a subject followed by a corresponding verb, and sometimes an object:

1. Business leaders **require** sophisticated strategies when they work internationally.

2. Kamoche et al. (2015) **analyze** leadership strategies in Africa.

Passive Voice

To form a passive-voice sentence, place the object of an active-voice sentence in the subject position, use a form of the verb *to be* in the appropriate tense, and add a past participle:

1. Business leaders **require** sophisticated strategies when they work internationally. (active voice)


Sophisticated strategies **are required** in international work. (passive voice – no stated agent)
2. Kamoche et al. (2015) **analyze** leadership strategies in Africa. (active voice)


Leadership strategies in Africa **are analyzed** by Kamoche et al. (2015). (passive voice – stated agent: *by Kamoche et al. [2015]*)

The Passive Voice and Transitive Verbs

Passive-voice sentences are formed with transitive verbs, which are verbs that require an object. Intransitive verbs do not require an object. Some verbs can be used transitively or intransitively, depending on the context. In the active voice examples below, the verbs are in bold and the objects, underlined.

Business leaders face <u>challenges</u> when they work internationally.	(transitive verb)
Leaders from Europe and Africa talked for three hours at the meeting.	(intransitive verb)
The European delegation visited <u>the site</u> three times.	(transitive or intransitive verb, used transitively)
The European delegation visited last year.	(transitive or intransitive verb, used intransitively)

TASK 1

Read the sentences below, and indicate whether the verbs are in the active or passive voice. If a verb is transitive and is in the active voice, rewrite the sentence in the passive voice. If a verb is in the passive voice, rewrite the sentence in the active voice. Key words to analyze and change are in bold.

1. **A recent study highlighted the need** to promote indigenous African knowledge in African transnational corporations.

☐ active voice ☐ passive voice

2. In Section 3, **I will argue that** transcultural awareness is necessary in international business.

☐ active voice ☐ passive voice

3. The role of women leaders in China, India, and Singapore **is discussed by** Peus, Braun, and Knipfer (2015).

☐ active voice ☐ passive voice

4. **It has been documented that** Confucianism has greatly impacted leaders in the Chinese diaspora (Chai & Rhee, 2010).

☐ active voice ☐ passive voice

5. It has been documented that **Confucianism has greatly impacted leaders** in the Chinese diaspora (Chai & Rhee, 2010).

☐ active voice ☐ passive voice

6. **Scholars such as Kim and Moon (2015) and Peus, Braun, and Knipfer (2015) have addressed the relationship** between business leadership and local cultural knowledge.

☐ active voice ☐ passive voice

The Passive Voice: Tone, Emphasis, and Agent

Use of the passive voice as opposed to the active voice does not change meaning. However, it can affect the tone of the sentence and the emphasis of information, as illustrated below.

Active Voice

1. Business leaders require sophisticated strategies when they work internationally.
2. Kim and Moon (2015) analyze leadership strategies in Asia.

Tone: Sentences 1 and 2 have an academic tone due to the vocabulary (*require, analyze*). The fact that they are in the active voice rather than the passive voice has little effect on their tone.

Emphasis: In sentence 1, the use of the active voice has little effect on which part of the sentence is emphasized. In sentence 2, *Kim and Moon (2015) analyze* is a citation phrase: *Kim and Moon* is the subject of the reporting verb *analyze*. In citation phrases, use of the active voice can emphasize the author more than the information cited.

Passive Voice

- | | |
|---|--|
| 1. Sophisticated strategies are required in international work. | (passive voice with no stated agent) |
| 2. Leadership strategies in Asia are analyzed by Kim and Moon (2015). | (passive voice – stated agent: <i>by Kim and Moon [2015]</i>) |

Tone: Sentences 1 and 2 have an academic tone due to the vocabulary (*require, analyze*) and the use of the passive voice. The passive voice adds an extra tone of scientific objectivity.

Emphasis: In sentence 1, there is no stated agent: the writer does not indicate who requires the sophisticated strategies. This type of agentless passive-voice sentence is used here because the agent is unknown or unimportant and because the information in the sentence is a generally accepted fact. In this case, the stated strategies are more important than knowing who requires them. In sentence 2,

the agent is stated. *Kim and Moon (2015)*. In this type of passive-voice sentence, the agent is emphasized.

TASK 2

Rewrite the following active voice sentences as passive voice sentences, following the prompts in parentheses. Explain your decisions about whether or not to state the agents.

1. In Section 2, I argue that traditional forms of knowledge in Africa and Asia should be seen as resources for business leaders.

(Write a passive-voice sentence beginning with *it will* to create a less personal tone. Decide whether to add emphasis by stating the agent.)

2. Scholars such as Kim and Moon (2015) and Peus, Braun, and Knipfer (2015) have suggested that business leadership should be more closely tied to local cultural knowledge.

(Write a passive-voice sentence beginning with *it has*. Decide whether to state the agent.)

Agentless Passives

Passive voice sentences with no stated agent are also called *agentless passives*. As stated, agentless passives are used when the agent is unknown or considered to be unimportant. In cases of factual statements based on common knowledge, agentless passives pose few problems. However, in academic writing, agentless passives are problematic when the writer claims to represent the ideas of experts without stating explicitly who these experts are.

1. Local cultural knowledge was passed on orally before writing systems emerged.
2. It has been argued that intercultural awareness is as important as traditional leadership skills in business.
3. It has been argued that business leaders should pay more attention to local knowledge and culture.

In sentence 1, the agent is unknown and unimportant for the focus of the sentence. The sentence is not problematic because it states a generally recognized fact.

Sentence 2 has no stated agent. This example is problematic because the writer should state clearly who has put forward this argument. Similarly, sentence 3 is problematic because the writer should state who has argued this point about business leaders.

Passive-Voice Sentences with *to Get*

It is also possible to write passive-voice sentences using *to get* as the auxiliary verb in place of *to be*. Using *get* with the passive voice is more common in informal English than in formal academic style. It can also cause a change in meaning, suggesting the information conveyed is surprising or unpleasant.

1. My thesis proposal **was** rejected.
2. My thesis proposal **got** rejected.

In sentence 2, the writer has used *got* instead of *was* as the auxiliary verb in the passive-voice sentence, adding a sense of unexpectedness or unpleasantness to it. As such, the reader may interpret the sentence to mean that the writer was expecting the proposal to be accepted and is surprised or annoyed.

TASK 3

Read the following active- and passive-voice sentences, and answer the questions that follow.

1. My laptop was stolen yesterday afternoon. I left it in the room during the lunch break.

Does the speaker seem surprised or annoyed?

2. I just found out that I got accepted for the scholarship!

Does it seem like the speaker was expecting to be accepted?

3. The view that the MMR vaccine causes autism has been discredited.

Why might an instructor add a margin note that asks, "By whom?"

4. The view that the MMR vaccine causes autism has been discredited by leading scientists.

Why might an instructor add a margin note that asks, "Which ones?"

5. Leadership strategies in Asia are analyzed by Kim and Moon (2015).

Does this sentence emphasize the agent?



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	Examples	Form/Concept
Active voice	Business leaders require sophisticated strategies when they work internationally. Kamoche et al. (2015) analyze leadership strategies in Africa.	Form: <u>subject</u> + verb + <u>optional object</u>
Passive voice	a) Sophisticated strategies are required in international work. (no stated agent) b) Leadership strategies in Africa are analyzed by Kamoche et al. (2015). (stated agent)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Active-voice object moves to subject position in the passive voice. • Form: <i>to be</i> + past participle • Verb must be transitive. • a) No stated agent • b) Stated agent: <i>by Kamoche et al. (2015)</i>
Stating the Agent		
Passive voice, no stated agent	a) Sophisticated strategies are required in international work. b) Local cultural knowledge was passed on orally before writing systems emerged. c) It has been argued that business leaders should pay more attention to local knowledge and culture	a) Agent is unimportant b) Agent is unknown and unimportant for the sentence. c) Unstated agent is problematic: writer needs to state who the idea or argument belongs to
Passive voice, stated agent	Leadership strategies in Asia are analyzed by Kim and Moon (2015) .	The agent is important for the sentence and is given emphasis.
Tone		
Active voice	In Section 3, I will argue that transcultural awareness is necessary in international business.	Personal, subjective style
Passive voice	In Section 3, it will be argued that transcultural awareness is necessary in international business.	Less personal, more objective style
Passive Voice with <i>to Get</i>		
Passive voice with <i>to be</i>	My thesis proposal was rejected.	Neutral
Passive voice with <i>to get</i>	My thesis proposal got rejected.	Sense of unexpectedness or unpleasantness

PUNCTUATION: COLONS AND APOSTROPHES

The rules for colons and apostrophes are not always agreed on in academic writing, nor are they always followed consistently. You will likely notice that writers use colons and apostrophes differently. This may be because they have followed a publisher's style guidelines, which are usually based on slightly different rules set out by organizations such as the APA and MLA. It may also be because they do not know how to use these punctuation marks correctly!

The following are the most common rules for colons and apostrophes.

COLONS

THREE USES OF COLONS

Colons are used to introduce examples and lists at the end of an independent clause, and to introduce direct quotations, also at the end of an independent clause. In addition, they are commonly used to separate main titles from subtitles when referring to written works.

Introducing Examples and Lists

Use a colon to introduce a list or examples after an independent clause:

Two key factors affect business in Africa: globalization and dominant Western business practices.

Do not use a colon to introduce a list or examples that are incorporated grammatically into the sentence:

Two key factors affecting business in Africa **are** globalization and dominant Western business practices.

Use a colon to create an economical style in a list containing long items. Compare the following paragraphs:

In the above sections, I analyzed several factors related to business between Asia, Africa, and the West. First, I looked at strategies that promote intercultural understanding between regions. Second, I focused on the effects of globalization and dominant Western business practices in African and Asian countries. Finally, I considered the potential of crossvergence as opposed to convergence and divergence in international leadership.

In the above sections, I analyzed the following factors related to business between Asia, Africa, and the West: strategies that promote intercultural understanding between regions, the effects of globalization and dominant Western business practices in African and Asian countries, and the potential of crossvergence as opposed to convergence and divergence in international leadership.

The items in the examples are separated by commas. If one of the items contained a comma, semicolons would be used to separate the items (see Unit 5, p. 200).

In the second paragraph, the insertion of a colon has taken away the need to use introductory linking words such as *first* and *second* as well as verb phrases such as *I looked at* and *I focused on*. Instead, with the colon, the list of noun phrases is sufficient.

Introducing Direct Quotations

Use a colon to introduce direct quotations at the end of an independent clause:

Leadership assessments must be conducted as follows: “in a structured manner, primarily based on behavioral criteria” (Peus et al., 2012, p. 106).

Do not use a colon to introduce a direct quotation that is incorporated grammatically into the sentence:

Leadership assessments should “be conducted in a structured manner, primarily based on behavioral criteria” (Peus et al., 2012, p. 106).

Separating a Main Title and a Subtitle

In titles of books, articles, and essays, it is common to use a colon to separate the main title (which indicates the general topic) and the subtitle (which shows the specific focus).

Business Leadership in Africa: Rising to the Challenge

Leadership Strategies in Chinese Corporations: Looking West or East?

TASK 1

Indicate whether the following sentences are correct or incorrect. If the sentence is incorrect, rewrite it.

1. Three trends in international business leadership have been analyzed: convergence, divergence, and crossvergence.

☐ correct ☐ incorrect

2. The three trends studied for international business leadership are: convergence, divergence, and crossvergence.

☐ correct ☐ incorrect

3. According to a famous entrepreneur, “business is 10% theory and 90% common sense.”

☐ correct ☐ incorrect

4. A famous entrepreneur once stated that: “business is 10% theory and 90% common sense.”

☐ correct ☐ incorrect

TASK 2

Insert a colon in the paragraph below and rewrite it in a more economical style.

Entrepreneurial Assets

Establishing a successful new business is not a simple task. Anyone trying to succeed needs several assets. First, it is essential to find a niche in the market and a product to sell in that space. Second, the entrepreneur needs to develop a sound marketing plan, with a clear focus on product, price, and placement. Third, he or she needs to guarantee quality and consistency in the production process. Finally, any entrepreneur starting a new project needs to be able to learn from mistakes.

APOSTROPHES

TWO USES OF APOSTROPHES

Apostrophes are used mainly for possessives (showing that something belongs to something or someone) and contractions (short forms such as *doesn't* instead of *does not*). For possessives, the position of the apostrophe depends on whether the noun it is added to is singular or plural.

Possessives

To form the possessive of a singular noun, add an apostrophe and an s:

Intercultural awareness can help **a business leader's decision-making** in international contexts.

For a singular noun ending in s, add an apostrophe and an s. Note, however, that some writers add only an apostrophe in such cases.

A clear marketing plan can promote **a business's growth** in its initial years.

A clear marketing plan can promote **a business' growth** in its initial years.

For a plural noun ending in s, add an apostrophe:

Intercultural awareness has an inevitable effect on **business leaders' beliefs, values, and actions**.

For a plural noun not ending in s, add an apostrophe and an s:

Many factors affect **women's chances** for advancement to leadership positions in international corporations.

For two or more individual possessives, add an apostrophe to each:

Guo's (2015) and **Li's** (2016) **analyses** of crossvergence in Asian contexts provide useful recommendations for international business leaders.

Note that the example above refers to two separate studies, so they qualify as individual possessives.

For joint possessives, add only one apostrophe to the final person or thing:

Kim and Moon's (2015) **analysis** of Corporate Social Responsibility (CSR) focuses on practices in several Asian countries.

Note that the example above refers to one co authored study, so it qualifies as a joint possessive.

For a place name that ends with a plural noun ending in s, add an apostrophe:

The Unites States' historical position in support of free trade agreements may change in the next 20 years.

For an indefinite pronoun (e.g., *anyone*, *someone*), add an apostrophe and an s:

Someone's bag was left at the meeting.

For a name not ending in s, add an apostrophe and an s:

Lee's CSR plan was accepted by the board.

For a name ending in s, add an apostrophe and an s. Note, however, that some writers add only an apostrophe in such cases.

Carlos's CSR plan was accepted by the board.

Carlos' CSR plan was accepted by the board.

Awkward Possessive Apostrophes

Avoid using apostrophes that make words or phrases awkward to read or say.

For example, avoid sentences with too many possessives grouped together:

Ms. Lee's company's representative's proposal was accepted.

Rephrase such sentences to make them more readable:

The proposal put forward by the representative of **Ms. Lee's company** was accepted.

With names ending in an s pronounced eez, the pronunciation may become awkward by adding an extra s, so many writers use only the apostrophe.

Mr. Davies' CSR plan was accepted by the board.

Note that it is easier to pronounce *Mr. Davies'* than *Mr. Davies's*.

Contractions

Contractions are shortened words with a letter or letters omitted. They are often avoided in academic writing due to the perception that they can make the tone informal. Nonetheless, some writers use them; the choice to do so depends on the genre of writing, the reader(s), or the writer's personal preference.

Examples of Common Contractions

Negative Verbs	Subjects + Auxiliary Verbs
isn't (is not)	I'm (I am)
aren't (are not)	I've (I have)
hasn't (has not)	you're (you are)
haven't (have not)	you've (you have)
don't (do not)	she's (she is)
won't (will not)	he'll (he will)
wouldn't (would not)	they're (they are)
shouldn't (should not)	they'd (they would)

Numbers may also be contracted, specifically, in abbreviated forms of years, used in less formal English:

During the **'90s** (During the 1990s)

Contraction Errors

The following are common errors to avoid when you use apostrophes in contractions.

Its and it's: When *its* is used as a possessive, do not add an apostrophe. When *it's* is used as a contraction of *it is* or *it has*, add an apostrophe.

- ✓ The company is rebranding **its** logo.
- ✗ The company is rebranding **it's** logo.
- ✓ **It's** time we left.
- ✗ **Its** time we left.

Whose and who's: Avoid confusing *whose* (a possessive relative pronoun) and *who's* (a contraction of *who is*).

- ✓ **Whose** idea are you using?
- ✗ **Who's** idea are you using?
- ✓ **Who's** been helping you with the proposal?
- ✗ **Whose** been helping you with the proposal?

Other possessive pronouns that never contain an apostrophe are *ours*, *yours*, *his*, *hers*, and *theirs*.

- ✓ The idea was **ours**.
- ✗ The idea was **our's**.

Should've and should of: The contracted form of *should have* is *should've*. Some writers make the mistake of writing *should of* due to the similar pronunciation.

- ✓ We **should've** considered their proposal.
- ✗ We **should of** considered their proposal.

Your and you're: *Your* is a possessive adjective. *You're* is the contraction of *you are*.

- ✓ It was **your** idea.
- ✗ It was **you're** idea.

✓ **You're** meeting us this afternoon.

✗ **Your** meeting us this afternoon.

Years in reference to periods, such as *the 1980s*: Many writers incorrectly add an apostrophe after years when referring to the decade.

✓ During the **1980s**, there was a global economic recession.

✗ During the **1980's**, there was a global economic recession.

TASK 3

Indicate whether the following sentences are correct or incorrect. If the sentence is incorrect, rewrite it.

1. Dealing with a glass ceiling can be a woman business leaders main hindrance to progress.

☐ correct ☐ incorrect

2. The class's requests were dealt with by the course director.

☐ correct ☐ incorrect

3. The classes' requests were dealt with by the course director.

☐ correct ☐ incorrect

4. The marketing class analyzed the advertising of childrens products.

☐ correct ☐ incorrect

5. The CEOs and managers roles in the company were very different.

☐ correct ☐ incorrect

6. The United Arab Emirates oil reserves total almost 100 billion barrels

☐ correct ☐ incorrect

7. Is this anyones phone?

☐ correct ☐ incorrect

8. Linda's office is the second on the left.

☐ correct ☐ incorrect

9. Charles office is next to Lindas'.

☐ correct ☐ incorrect

10. Dont be late for the meeting; your going to get an answer to your request for more staff.

☐ correct ☐ incorrect

11. Its time for the management to review it's procedures.

☐ correct ☐ incorrect

TASK 4

The following paragraph contains no colons or apostrophes. Add them as required.

Richard Branson: Entrepreneur and Adventurer

Richard Branson, one of the worlds most famous entrepreneurs, set up Virgin Records in the early 70s in London, England. In the next 20 years, a radio station, an airline, and a phone company were added to the Virgin brand Virgin Radio, Virgin Atlantic Airways, and Virgin Mobile. By the middle of the 2000s, Bransons new company for space tourism, Virgin Galactic, was up and running. Branson has also caught peoples attention with his attempts at breaking world records, including an attempt to cross the Atlantic in a hot-air balloon. In 1987, Branson and a Swede, Per Lindstrand, set off to make the first transatlantic balloon flight. Branson and Lindstrands attempt went famously wrong when they had to jump into the ocean and be rescued. Branson was undeterred. His attitude to success and failure can be best summed up by the following quotation "Dont be embarrassed by your failures. Learn from them and start again."

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apostrophes online.

Function	Context	Examples
Colons		
To introduce a list or examples	<p>After an independent clause</p> <p>*Do not use a colon when the list or examples are incorporated grammatically in the sentence.</p> <p>After an independent clause, to create an economical style</p>	<p>Two key factors affect business in Africa: globalization and dominant Western business practices.</p> <p>*Two key factors affecting business in Africa are globalization and dominant Western business practices.</p> <p>Less economical style: In the above sections, I analyzed several factors related to business between Asia, Africa, and the West. First, I looked at strategies that Second, I focused on the effects of Finally, I considered the potential of crossvergence as opposed to . . .</p> <p>More economical style: In the above sections, I analyzed several factors related to business between Asia, Africa, and the West: strategies that . . . , the effects of . . . , and the potential of crossvergence as opposed to . . .</p>
To introduce direct quotations	<p>After an independent clause</p> <p>*Do not use a colon when the direct quotation is incorporated grammatically in the sentence.</p>	<p>Leadership assessments must be conducted as follows: "in a structured manner, primarily based on behavioral criteria" (Peus et al., 2012, p. 106).</p> <p>*Leadership assessments should "be conducted in a structured manner, primarily based on behavioral criteria" (Peus et al., 2012, p. 106).</p>
To separate a main title and a subtitle	In titles of books, articles, and essays	<p>Business Leadership in Africa: Rising to the Challenge</p> <p>Leadership Strategies in Chinese Corporations: Looking West or East?</p>
Apostrophes		
To indicate possession	<p>Singular nouns not ending in s</p> <p>Rule: Add 's.</p> <p>Singular nouns ending in s</p> <p>Rule: Add 's or only the apostrophe.</p> <p>Plural nouns ending in s</p> <p>Rule: Add only the apostrophe</p> <p>Plural nouns not ending in s</p> <p>Rule: Add 's.</p> <p>Two or more individual possessives</p> <p>Rule: Add 's to each possessive noun.</p> <p>Joint possessives</p> <p>Rule: Add 's only to the last possessive noun.</p> <p>Place names ending with a plural noun that ends in s</p> <p>Rule: Add only the apostrophe.</p> <p>Indefinite pronouns</p> <p>Rule: Add 's.</p>	<p>Intercultural awareness can help a business leader's decision-making in international contexts.</p> <p>A clear marketing plan can promote a business's/business' growth in its initial years.</p> <p>Intercultural awareness has an inevitable effect on business leaders' beliefs, values, and actions.</p> <p>Many factors affect women's chances for advancement to leadership positions in international corporations.</p> <p>Guo's (2015) and Li's (2016) analyses of crossvergence in Asian contexts provide useful recommendations for international business leaders.</p> <p>Kim and Moon's (2015) analysis of Corporate Social Responsibility (CSR) focuses on practices in several Asian countries.</p> <p>The United States' historical position in support of free trade agreements may change in the next 20 years.</p> <p>Someone's bag was left at the meeting.</p>

Function	Context	Examples
To indicate possession	Names not ending in s Rule: Add 's.	Lee's CSR plan was accepted by the board.
	Names ending in s Rule: Add 's or only the apostrophe.	Carlos's/Carlos' CSR plan was accepted by the board.
Contractions	Negative verbs	isn't (is not) aren't (are not) hasn't (has not) haven't (have not) don't (do not) won't (will not) wouldn't (would not) shouldn't (should not)
	Subject + auxiliary verbs	I'm (I am) I've (I have) you're (you are) you've (you have) she's (she is) he'll (he will) they're (they are) they'd (they would)
	Abbreviated forms of years (less formal)	During the '90s (During the 1990s)
Avoiding contraction errors	<i>its</i> versus <i>it's</i>	The company is rebranding its logo. It's time we left.
	<i>whose</i> versus <i>who's</i>	Whose idea are you using? Who's been helping you with the proposal?
	Other possessive pronouns: <i>ours</i> , <i>yours</i> , <i>his</i> , <i>hers</i> , <i>theirs</i> Rule: No apostrophe.	The idea was ours
	<i>should've</i> versus <i>should of</i>	We should've considered their proposal.
	<i>your</i> versus <i>you're</i>	It was your idea. You're meeting us this afternoon.
	Years referring to a decade Rule: No apostrophe.	During the 1980s , there was a global economic recession.

SENTENCE FRAGMENTS, COMMA SPLICES, AND RUN-ON SENTENCES

Sentence Fragments

A sentence fragment is an incomplete sentence because it lacks at least one required component of an independent clause. The following sections describe the three most common types of sentence fragment.

Dependent Clause Written as a Complete Sentence

Even though the aims of the fair trade movement are laudable.

The sentence begins with the subordinator *even though*, which makes the clause dependent. In informal conversation or digital communication, this type of sentence fragment is commonly used as a sentence. However, in academic writing, it needs to be corrected in one of the following two ways.

Remove the subordinator:

~~Even though~~ The aims of the fair trade movement are laudable.

OR

Connect the dependent clause to an independent clause, forming a complex sentence:

Even though the aims of the fair trade movement are laudable, **it still needs to reform.**

Sentence without a Verb

The slow food movement a challenge to fast-food culture.

This sentence fragment would work well as a headline of a news article if a colon was added:

The slow food movement: a challenge to fast-food culture

However, to become a complete sentence, the fragment needs a verb:

The slow food movement **represents** a challenge to fast food culture.

Sentence without a Subject

Gave the presentation on rehabilitation last night!

This type of sentence fragment is common in informal digital communication, for example, on social networking sites. However, in academic writing, a sentence needs a subject:

She gave the presentation on rehabilitation last night.

Note also the removal of the exclamation mark in formal academic writing.

TASK 1

Correct the five sentence fragments below so that they become complete sentences.

1. Despite local farmers receiving a higher price for fair trade products.

2. Fast-food culture spreading worldwide.

3. Excessive fast-food consumption health problems in later life.

4. Discussed trading issues between southern Africa and the EU yesterday!

5. Because intermediaries make considerable profits in the fair trade chain.

Comma Splices

Comma splices are the result of the incorrect separation of two independent clauses with a comma instead of a semicolon or period.

Two Independent Clauses Separated by a Comma

Excessive fast food consumption can lead to weight gain, it can also cause health problems in later life.

To correct the comma splice, replace the comma with a period or semicolon. In this case, the semicolon is preferable because the two clauses are closely related.

Excessive fast food consumption can lead to weight gain; it can also cause health problems in later life.

Excessive fast-food consumption can lead to weight gain. **It** can also cause health problems in later life.

Another way to correct the comma splice is to form a compound sentence, using *and* or *not only*:

Excessive fast-food consumption can lead to weight gain, **and** it can cause health problems in later life.

Not only can excessive fast-food consumption lead to weight gain, it can also cause health problems in later life.

Two Independent Clauses Separated by a Conjunctive Adverb with a Comma

Local farmers receive a higher price for fair trade products, however, many still live in poverty.

To correct the comma splice, replace the comma at the end of the first independent clause with a semicolon or period. Again, the semicolon is preferable in this case because the two clauses are closely related.

Local farmers receive a higher price for fair trade products; however, many still live in poverty.

Local farmers receive a higher price for fair trade products. **However**, many still live in poverty.

You can also correct the comma splice by rewriting the sentence with a coordinator such as *but* or *yet* to form a compound sentence:

Local farmers receive a higher price for fair trade products, **but/yet** many still live in poverty.

A third way to correct the comma splice is to rewrite the sentence with a subordinator such as *although* or *while* to form a complex sentence:

Although/While local farmers receive a higher price for fair trade products, many still live in poverty.

Comma Splices and Genre

In some non-academic genres of writing, for example, literary writing and journalism, comma splices are used and deemed acceptable. Comma splices are also common in informal communication.

TASK 1

Correct the four comma splices below, using at least two of the methods described above. Use a semicolon rather than a period to join independent clauses with closely related ideas.

1. The Mediterranean diet has been shown to reduce the incidence of cardiovascular disease, it may also prevent certain types of cancer.

2. Local farmers receive a higher price for fair trade products, therefore, consumers have to pay a premium at the supermarket.

3. Fast food culture has grown worldwide due to lifestyle changes and marketing, nonetheless, traditional food is still preferred in many countries around the globe.

4. Today's international business leaders need to understand many different cultures, this is easier if they speak several languages.

Run-On Sentences

A run-on sentence is a sentence in which two or more independent clauses are joined without punctuation. Run-on sentences should be corrected in the same ways as the comma splices above.

Excessive fast-food consumption can lead to weight gain it can also cause health problems in later life.

In the example above, there is no punctuation between the first independent clause, ending with *weight gain*, and the second one, beginning with *it*.

The Mediterranean diet has been shown to reduce the incidence of cardiovascular disease it may also prevent certain types of cancer.

Here there is no punctuation between the first independent clause, ending with *cardiovascular disease*, and the second one, beginning with *it*.

Correct run-on sentences by adding a semicolon or period, or by modifying the sentence structure, as shown above in the section on comma splices.

TASK 3

Correct the following run-on sentences by applying at least two of the methods you have studied in this unit.

1. Fast-food consumption is on the rise worldwide young people in many countries are now eating more fast food and less local food.

2. The slow food movement promotes healthy and ethical eating it emerged as a reaction to the spread of fast-food culture.

TASK 4

The paragraph below contains sentence fragments, comma splices, and run-on sentences. Rewrite the paragraph, correcting the errors by applying the methods you have studied in this unit.

The Mediterranean Diet

The Mediterranean diet gets its name, unsurprisingly, from the food eaten in countries surrounding the Mediterranean Sea. Even though many of these foods are also eaten elsewhere in the world. The diet is characterized by high consumption of extra virgin olive oil, whole grains, green vegetables, and fresh fruit, dairy products and fish tend to be consumed moderately. Red meat and saturated fat are consumed much less. As are processed foods. Another important feature of the Mediterranean diet is a social dimension, meals are often eaten together as a family unit. Not in front of the TV or during a 10-minute lunch break. A number of studies have found that the Mediterranean diet can prevent heart disease, cancer, and diabetes in later life it has also been found to increase longevity.



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SENTENCE FRAGMENTS, COMMA SPLICES, AND RUN-ON SENTENCES

Problem	Examples	Correction Methods
Sentence Fragments		
Dependent clause written as a complete sentence	Even though the aims of the fair trade movement are laudable	a) Remove the subordinator: The aims of the fair trade movement are laudable. b) Form a complex sentence: Even though the aims of the fair trade movement are laudable, it still needs to reform.
Sentence without a verb	The slow food movement a challenge to fast-food culture	Add a verb: The slow food movement represents a challenge to fast food culture
Sentence without a subject	Gave the presentation on rehabilitation last night!	Add a subject: She gave the presentation on rehabilitation last night
Comma Splices		
Two independent clauses separated by a comma	Excessive fast-food consumption can lead to weight gain, it can also cause health problems in later life.	a) Replace the comma with a semicolon or period: Excessive fast food consumption can lead to weight gain; it can also cause health problems in later life. (preferable because the ideas are closely related) Excessive fast-food consumption can lead to weight gain. It can also cause health problems in later life. b) Form a compound sentence with <i>and</i> or <i>not only</i> : Excessive fast-food consumption can lead to weight gain, and it can cause health problems in later life. Not only can excessive fast-food consumption lead to weight gain, it can also cause health problems in later life.
Two independent clauses separated by a conjunctive adverb with a comma	Local farmers receive a higher price for fair trade products, however, many still live in poverty.	a) Replace the first comma with a semicolon or period: Local farmers receive a higher price for fair trade products; however, many still live in poverty. Local farmers receive a higher price for fair trade products. However , many still live in poverty. b) Form a compound sentence, adding a coordinator: Local farmers receive a higher price for fair trade products, but/yet many still live in poverty. c) Form a complex sentence, adding a subordinator: Although/While local farmers receive a higher price for fair trade products, many still live in poverty.
Run-On Sentences		
No punctuation joining independent clauses	a) Excessive fast-food consumption can lead to weight gain it can also cause health problems in later life. b) The Mediterranean diet has been shown to reduce the incidence of cardiovascular disease it may also prevent certain types of cancer.	Replace the comma with a semicolon or period, or modify the sentence structure (as for comma splices): a) Excessive fast food consumption can lead to weight gain; it can also cause health problems in later life. b) Not only has the Mediterranean diet been shown to reduce the incidence of cardiovascular disease, it may also prevent certain types of cancer.

SUBJECT-VERB AGREEMENT

Subject-verb agreement means that subjects and their corresponding verbs should agree. In other words, if the subject is singular, the verb should be in a singular form; if the subject is plural, the verb should be in a plural form. While this may seem simple, there are some rules to learn to ensure that subjects and verbs agree consistently and accurately in your writing. The examples below illustrate some common rules for subject-verb agreement. The subjects are underlined and the corresponding verbs, in bold.

Basic Rules

For main verbs in the present tense, except irregular verbs such as *to be*, the third-person singular form requires an *s*. The other forms do not.

3D printing **involves** using plastic or metal powders to create copies of objects.

3D printers **form** thousands of horizontal layers to create objects.

For tenses with auxiliary verbs—for example, perfect, continuous, and future tenses—only the auxiliary verb agrees with the subject. Modal auxiliary verbs, however, do not change form in the third-person singular.

In the last 10 years, air pollution **has damaged** more local environments.

Air pollutants **are having** a particularly negative effect on urban environments.

Pollutant levels in the EU **will** most likely **fall** further in the next decade.

Air pollution **may rise** further if no action is taken.

Compound Subjects

A compound subject is made up of two or more nouns or pronouns, for example, A and B, X or Y.

Compound Subjects with *And*

If the subject of the sentence comprises two or more nouns or pronouns plus *and*, use the plural form of the verb:

Ammonia and nitrogen dioxide **are** two major air pollutants.

Pollution, pesticides, and fast food **have been linked** to ill health in children.

In some cases, however, two nouns joined by *and* represent a single idea and require a singular verb:

Research and development into reducing air pollution **is** ongoing.

Compound Subjects with Or and Nor

If the subject of the sentence comprises two or more singular nouns or pronouns joined by *or* or *nor*, use the singular form of the verb:

Fast food or lack of a balanced diet often **leads** to ill health in children.

Neither fast food nor unhealthy eating fully **explains** why children become ill.

If the compound subject is made up of a combination of singular and plural nouns joined by *or* or *nor*, the verb should agree with the nearest noun or pronoun in the subject:

Fast food or unhealthy eating habits often **lead** to ill health in children.

Compound Subjects with As Well As and Along With

If the compound subject is formed by two or more nouns or pronouns joined by *as well as* or *along with*, the corresponding verb should agree with the first noun in the subject. Compare the following sentences:

Fast food, unhealthy eating, and lack of exercise **are** bad for children's health.

Fast food, along with unhealthy eating and lack of exercise, **is** bad for children's health.

Indefinite Pronouns

Indefinite pronouns are pronouns that do not refer to a specific person, thing, or place, for example, *everyone*, *somebody*, *each*, and *neither*. Sentences with indefinite pronouns acting as subjects follow specific rules of subject-verb agreement.

Use a Singular Verb

When they form the subject of a sentence, the following indefinite pronouns require a singular verb: *another*, *anybody*, *anyone*, *anything*, *each (one)*, *either*, *everybody*, *everyone*, *everything*, *neither*, *nobody*, *no one*, *nothing*, *one*, *other*, *somebody*, *someone*, and *something*.

In my opinion, nothing **is** impossible with 3D printing.

Something **isn't working** properly in the machine.

Use a Plural Verb

Use the plural form of the verb in sentences with the following indefinite pronouns as subjects: *both*, *few*, *many*, *others*, and *several*.

A variety of objects today are made by 3D printing; many **are** prototypes.

The workshop is now equipped with a 3D printer as well as a multifunction printer; both **require** regular maintenance.

Use a Singular or a Plural Verb

Some indefinite pronouns, for example, *all*, *none*, and *some*, may be followed by a singular or plural verb, depending on the context (whether they refer to a singular or plural noun).

All of the objects on display **were made** with a 3D printer.

All of the machinery **is** less than a year old.

Collective Nouns

Collective nouns are used to refer to groups of things or people. In most cases, they require singular verbs (although plural verbs may be used in less formal contexts). Some examples of collective nouns are *class*, *crowd*, *family*, *government*, *group*, *organization*, *population*, and *team*.

The Environmental Sciences class **is going** on a field trip next week.

The Environmental Sciences class **are collecting** samples. (informal)

The government **has increased** funding for non-polluting fuel systems.

Plural verbs can also be used with collective nouns, when the members of the group are acting as individuals rather than together.

The Environmental Sciences class **are doing** their individual projects.

TASK 1

Some of the following sentences have incorrect, or informal, subject-verb agreement. Identify the incorrect sentences and rewrite them.

1. In the last 10 years, air pollution phenomena has increased.

☐ correct ☐ incorrect

2. The anti-pollution criteria for air filters has become much stricter.

☐ correct ☐ incorrect

3. Neither stricter regulation nor technological development have halted damaging emissions.

☐ correct ☐ incorrect

4. Stricter regulation, along with heavier fines, has only had a minimal effect.

☐ correct ☐ incorrect

5. Both of the factories were absolved of any responsibility.

☐ correct ☐ incorrect

6. The government are increasing funding for non-polluting fuel systems.

☐ correct ☐ incorrect

Placing the Verb before the Subject

In some sentences, the verb is placed before the subject, for example, with the phrases *there is*, *there are*, *here is*, and *here are*. In such sentences, the verb agrees with the following noun or noun phrase:

Here **is** the exam schedule for the Environmental Sciences class.

Here **are** the exam guidelines for the Environmental Sciences class.

Nouns That Look Plural but Require Singular Verbs

Some nouns look plural but require singular verbs, for example, *news*, fields of study (*mathematics*, *economics*), expressions of time and distance (*three weeks*, *five hundred metres*), and amounts of currency (*20 dollars*).

The latest news about improvements in bioprinting **is** promising.

Three weeks **is** a long time to wait for exam results.

Five million dollars **was invested** in bioprinting for regenerative science last year.

Note, however, that plural forms of currency require plural verbs when referring to the type of currency:

Euros **are required** in many countries in Europe.

Avoid Common Errors

Be careful to make the verb agree with the subject when you write sentences containing the following structures.

One of the

One of the worst causes of air pollution ~~are~~ **is** nitrogen dioxide.

One of the worst causes of air pollution ~~are~~ **is** nitrogen oxides.

Nouns That Always Require a Plural Verb

The police sometimes ~~arrests~~ **arrest** serious polluters.

People ~~is~~ **are** responsible for recycling their own waste.

A Plural Noun Adjacent to the Verb

My friend who works for two environmental consultants ~~are~~ **is** overworked.

Pollution from coal fired power plants ~~damage~~ **damages** air quality.

TASK 2

Some of the following sentences have incorrect subject-verb agreement. Identify the incorrect sentences and rewrite them.

1. There's air pollution in most urban centres.

☐ correct ☐ incorrect

2. There's many reasons for governments to invest in recycling.

☐ correct ☐ incorrect

3. The news about the 3D printing for hip transplants were incredible.

☐ correct ☐ incorrect

4. Five million euros have been raised so far for local hospitals.

☐ correct ☐ incorrect

TASK 3

Correct the subject-verb agreement errors in the following paragraph.

3D Printing

One of the most useful technological innovations of recent years have been 3D printing. Everyday household objects, machine parts, and even surgical implants has been constructed by 3D printing. Some experts have gone as far as stating that nothing is impossible with these machines. One of the most beneficial uses of 3D printing are surgical implants. Here is some examples of the types of implants that can be printed three-dimensionally. Recently, in Australia, surgeons successfully implanted a 3D-printed neck vertebra into a patient suffering from cancer. Another common use are dental implants. In fact, several million dollars have been spent on developing these technological advances. International collaboration, as well as local fundraising initiatives, has helped the development of the technology.



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on subject verb
agreement online

Context	Rule/Explanation	Examples
Basic rules	<p>a) Present-tense verbs, except irregular verbs (e.g., <i>to be</i>): the third-person singular form requires an <i>s</i>.</p> <p>b) Tenses with auxiliary verbs: only the auxiliary verb agrees with the subject. (Modal auxiliary verbs: No change of form in the third person singular.)</p>	<p>a) 3D printing involves using plastic or metal powders to create copies. 3D printers form thousands of horizontal layers to create objects.</p> <p>b) Recently, air pollution has damaged more local environments. Air pollutants are having a negative effect on urban life. Pollutant levels in the EU will fall further in the future. Air pollution may rise further if no action is taken.</p>
Compound subjects made up of two or more nouns or pronouns	<p>a) With <i>and</i>: use plural verbs</p> <p>b) With <i>or/nor</i> and singular nouns/pronouns: use singular verbs</p> <p>c) With <i>or/nor</i> and a combination of singular/plural nouns: the verb agrees with the nearest noun/pronoun.</p> <p>d) With <i>as well as</i> and <i>along with</i>: the verb agrees with the first noun in the subject.</p>	<p>a) Ammonia and nitrogen dioxide are two major air pollutants. Pollution, pesticides, and fast food have been linked to ill health.</p> <p>b) Fast food or lack of a balanced diet often leads to ill health. Neither fast food nor unhealthy eating explains why children become ill.</p> <p>c) Fast food or unhealthy eating habits often lead to ill health.</p> <p>d) Fast food, along with unhealthy eating, is bad for children's health.</p>
Indefinite pronouns	<p>a) Use a singular verb with <i>another, any body/one/thing, each, either, every body/one/thing, neither, nobody, no one, nothing, one, other, some-body/one/thing</i></p> <p>b) Use a plural verb with <i>both, few, many, others, several</i>.</p> <p>c) Use either a singular or a plural verb with <i>all, none, and some</i>.</p>	<p>a) In my opinion, nothing is impossible with 3D printing. Something isn't working properly in the machine.</p> <p>b) A variety of objects today are made by 3D printing, many are prototypes.</p> <p>c) All of the objects on display were made with a 3D printer. All of the machinery is less than a year old.</p>
Collective nouns	<p>a) Use a singular verb with <i>class, family, government, team, etc.</i></p> <p>b) Use a plural verb when referring to individual members of the group.</p>	<p>a) The Environmental Sciences class is going on a field trip next week.</p> <p>b) The Environmental Sciences class are doing their individual projects.</p>
Verb before the subject	The verb agrees with the following noun	<p>Here is the exam schedule.</p> <p>Here are the exam guidelines.</p>
Nouns that look plural but require singular verbs	<p>a) <i>news</i></p> <p>b) Fields of study (<i>mathematics</i>), expressions of time/distance (<i>three weeks, five hundred metres</i>), and amounts of money</p> <p>BUT</p> <p>c) Types of currency, in the plural, require a plural verb</p>	<p>a) The latest news about improvements in bioprinting is promising.</p> <p>b) Three weeks is a long time to wait for exam results. Five million dollars was invested in regenerative science last year.</p> <p>c) Euros are required in many countries in Europe.</p>
Errors to avoid	<p>a) <i>One of the . . .</i> + singular verb + singular/plural noun</p> <p>b) <i>The police/people</i> + plural verb</p> <p>c) Avoid conjugating the verb with the nearest noun.</p>	<p>a) One of the worst causes of air pollution are is nitrogen dioxide. One of the worst causes of air pollution are is nitrogen oxides.</p> <p>b) The police sometimes arrests arrest serious polluters.</p> <p>c) My friend who works for two environmental consultants are is overworked.</p>

CONDITIONAL SENTENCES

Conditional sentences have two clauses: the main clause and the conditional clause (also known as the *if clause*). In a conditional sentence, the action or state in the main clause will occur only if a condition in the *if clause* is met. To understand and use conditional sentences correctly, answer the following three questions:

- **Concept:** Is the action or state real or imaginary, possible or impossible?
- **Time idea:** Is the time idea past, present, future, or any time?
- **Form:** How are verb tenses used in the two clauses?

There are three main types of conditional sentence: first, second, and third conditional. In addition, there is a form called the *zero conditional*, and there are combinations of mixed conditionals.

Zero Conditional

In zero-conditional sentences, the action in the main clause always happens. This conditional form is used for **factual statements**:

If international students **take** courses at Central University, they **pay** higher tuition fees.

Concept: Factual reality

Time idea: Any time

Verb forms: Present tense (*if clause*) and present tense (main clause)

In the example above, the writer believes that all international students always pay higher tuition fees if they take courses at the university.

First Conditional

The first conditional is used for **real possibilities**:

If the college **implements** its mobile learning strategy, most students **will be** pleased.

Concept: Real possibility

Time idea: Present to future

Verb forms: Present tense (*if clause*) and future tense (main clause)

In the example of the first conditional, the writer believes that the actions or states in the two clauses have a real chance of occurring. This statement would be appropriate in the context of a college that has consulted students about introducing mobile learning, leading students to believe it is a real possibility.

Second Conditional

The second conditional is used for imaginary, hypothetical actions and states:

If the college **implemented** a mobile learning plan, most students **would be** pleased.

Concept: Imaginary, hypothetical reality

Time idea: Present to future

Verb forms: Past tense (*if* clause) and *would* + base form of the verb (main clause)

The second-conditional sentence has the same time idea as the first-conditional example on the preceding page. However, the writer is thinking hypothetically, imagining what would happen if the college were to introduce a mobile learning plan. This statement matches the context of a college that students feel has no stated intention of introducing mobile learning.

Note that the standard second-conditional form of the verb *to be* is *were* for all persons, including *if I were* and *if he/she/it were*

Third Conditional

The third conditional is used for ideas about changing the past, which is impossible:

If my college **had provided** more courses, I **would have graduated** in four instead of six years.

Concept: Impossible reality

Time idea: Past

Verb forms: Past perfect (*if* clause) and *would have* + past participle (main clause)

The writer is looking back at her college years and wondering why it took six years to graduate. She comes to the conclusion that the college did not provide enough courses, hence the statement. The third conditional is often used when people look back on the past and imagine how things might have been different.

TASK 1

Read the following conditional sentences and answer the questions that follow.

1. If you don't study, you fail.

a) Is the speaker presenting failure as a possible result of not studying or as a factual consequence?

b) Is the sentence a zero or first conditional? _____

c) Does the statement read as encouragement or as a warning?

2. If you don't study hard, you'll fail.

a) Does the speaker believe not studying and failure are possible or imaginary?

b) Is the sentence a first or second conditional? _____

c) Would the speaker be more likely to say this to a good or bad student?

3. If you studied harder, you'd pass.

a) Does the speaker believe studying harder and passing are possible or imaginary?

b) Is the sentence a first or second conditional? _____

c) Would the speaker be more likely to say this to a good or bad student?

4. If I had studied harder, I would have passed with an A.

a) Is the speaker describing a situation that is possible or impossible to change?

b) Is the sentence a second or third conditional? _____

c) Do you think the speaker is looking back with regret or imagining future possibilities?

Mixed Conditionals

It is also possible, and quite common, to mix the *unreal* second and third conditional forms by combining an idea of impossible past with an imaginary present or future.

Combining Impossible Past with Imaginary Present

In the sentences below, the speaker is imagining how, if things had been different in the past (third conditional in the *if* clause), he or she would have more job opportunities in the present (second conditional in the main clause).

If I **had studied** foreign languages at university, I'd **be** more employable now.

I'd **be** more employable now if I **had studied** foreign languages at university.

Combining Impossible Past with Imaginary Future

In the sentences below, the speaker is imagining how, if things had been different in the past (third conditional in the *if* clause), he or she would be able to start a new job in the future (second conditional in the main clause).

If I **had studied** foreign languages at university, I think I'd **be starting** a job in Paris next month.

I think I'd **be starting** a job in Paris next month if I **had studied** foreign languages at university.

If the *if* clause comes second in a conditional sentence, there is no comma before *if*.

Alternative Conditional Forms

Modal Auxiliary Verbs

It is possible to replace the auxiliary verbs in the main clause of first, second, and third conditionals with one of the four modal auxiliary verbs *may*, *might*, *could* or *should* to add a more nuanced sense of possibility or probability.

In first conditional sentences, the use of *should* (sentence 1) adds a sense of future probability and positive expectation. The use of *may*, *might*, and *could* (sentences 2 and 3) adds a sense of present or future possibility.

1. If the college adopts mobile learning, most students **should** be pleased.
2. If the college adopts mobile learning, some students **may/might** be pleased.
3. If the college adopts mobile learning, it **could** have positive results.

In second-conditional sentences, the use of *might* and *could* adds a sense of present or future possibility:

If the college gave more tutorial support, more students **might/could** pass their exams.

In third-conditional sentences, the use of *might* and *could* adds a sense of past possibility. Note that it is not possible to use *should* in the main clause of a third-conditional sentence to express past probability.

If my college had provided more courses, I **might/could** have graduated in four instead of six years.

When, As Soon As, and Unless

Another variation of conditional sentences involves replacing *if* with *when*, *as soon as*, or *unless* in first-conditional sentences.

1. **When** the college adopts mobile learning, most students will be pleased.
2. **As soon as** m-learning is adopted, students will need to have smart phones.
3. **Unless** the college adopts mobile learning, exam results will continue to fall.

In sentence 1, the use of *when* suggests that mobile learning is *definitely* going to be adopted. In sentence 2, *as soon as* adds the idea that students will need to have smart phones *immediately after* the policy is implemented. In sentence 3, the use of *unless* means “if not”: “if the college does not adopt mobile learning.”

Should Instead of If

In first-conditional sentences, *should* can replace *if* to add a sense of formality:

1. **If** you require any assistance, please feel free to ask.
2. **Should** you require any assistance, please feel free to ask.

Sentence 2 is more formal than sentence 1. This form is often used in formal documents and letters.

Were and Was

In second-conditional sentences, *were* and *was* can be used in the *if* clause. *Were* is the standard form; *was* is informal.

If I **were** you, I would make use of the Student Learning Office.

If I **was** you, I would make use of the Student Learning Office.

Were To and Was To

In second-conditional sentences, *were to* and *was to* can also be used in the *if* clause:

1. If I graduated in three years, I would be amazed.
2. If I **were to** graduate in three years, I would be amazed.
3. If I **was to** graduate in three years, I would be amazed.

Sentence 1 is the most common form of second conditional, using the past-tense verb. Sentences 2 and 3 have the same meaning as sentence 1; the use of *were* in sentence 2 is standard while *was* in sentence 3 is informal.

Had I and If I Had

It is possible to use *had I/you/we/etc.*, instead of *if I/you/we/etc. had*, in third-conditional sentences:

1. **If I had** studied foreign languages at university, I'd be more employable now.
2. **Had I** studied foreign languages at university, I'd be more employable now.

Sentences 1 and 2 have the same meaning. The use of *had I* in sentence 2 adds formality.

TASK 2

Follow the prompts and write a corresponding conditional sentence.

1. **Third conditional:** You are looking back and wondering how your life would have been different if you hadn't learned English as a child.

2. **Mixed conditional:** You are looking back and wondering what you would be doing now if you hadn't learned English as a child.

3. **Second conditional:** You are imagining how your life would be if you had to give up access to mobile devices for one month.

4. **Second conditional:** You are recommending to your boss, who is rather formal, to focus more on enjoying life and less on work.

5. **Second conditional:** You are recommending to your best friend to focus more on work and less on enjoying life.
- _____
- _____
6. **Zero conditional:** Explain what happens if you drop a smart phone in water.
- _____
- _____
7. **Second conditional:** Ask a group of colleagues how they would be affected if they gave up using their cellphones for one month; use *were to*.
- _____
- _____
8. **First conditional:** Explain to your friend that his or her smart phone will work better immediately after upgrading the operating system; use *as soon as*.
- _____
- _____
9. **First conditional:** Tell your classmates that they need to share ideas for the group project to get a good grade; use *unless*.
- _____
- _____
10. Explain to your friend that his or her smart phone will probably work better if he or she upgrades the operating system; you are optimistic.
- _____
- _____
11. Explain to your friend that his or her smart phone will possibly work better if he or she upgrades the operating system; you are not sure.
- _____
- _____
12. Advise your friend to change service provider to get better coverage on his or her phone; use *if I were you*.
- _____
- _____



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on conditional
sentences online

TASK 3

Practise using the different conditional forms you have learned in this unit by answering at least five of the questions below in a short paragraph.

1. When you look back at your previous studies, do you have any regrets?
2. When you graduate from your planned studies, what do you think you are likely to do next?
3. What would you love to do after graduating, but you think it is an unrealistic hope?
4. What do you plan to do immediately after class today?
5. What reassurance did your family give you recently for your future studies?
6. What warnings did they give you about your studies?
7. What will possibly happen if you pass your academic writing course with a top grade?
8. What do you think will probably happen during your first year at university?

SUMMARY

CONDITIONAL SENTENCES

Type of Conditional	Concept/Form	Examples
Zero conditional	Concept: Factual reality Time idea: Any time Verb forms: Present tense and present tense	If international students take courses at Central University, they pay higher tuition fees.
First conditional	Concept: Real possibility Time idea: Present to future Verb forms: Present tense and future tense	If the college implements its mobile learning strategy, most students will be pleased.
Second conditional	Concept: Imaginary, hypothetical reality Time idea: Present to future Verb forms: Past tense and <i>would</i> + base form of the verb	If the college implemented a mobile learning plan, most students would be pleased. If mobile learning were of use to me, I would get a smart phone.

Original Conditional	Concept/Form	Examples
Third conditional	Concept: Impossible reality Time idea: Past Verb forms: Past perfect and <i>would have</i> + past participle	If my college had provided more courses, I would have graduated in four instead of six years.
Mixed conditionals	a) Impossible past (third conditional) + imaginary present (second conditional) b) Impossible past (third conditional) + imaginary future (second conditional)	a) If I had studied foreign languages at university, I'd be more employable now. b) If I had studied foreign languages at university, I think I'd be starting a job in Paris next month.
Alternative Conditional Forms		
First conditional + modal auxiliary verbs	a) <i>Should</i> sense of future probability and positive expectation b) & c) <i>May, might, and could</i> sense of present or future possibility	a) If the college adopts mobile learning, most students should be pleased. b) If the college adopts mobile learning, some students may/might be pleased. c) If the college adopts mobile learning, it could have positive results.
Second conditional + modal auxiliary verbs	<i>Might and could</i> sense of present or future possibility	If the college gave more tutorial support, more students might/could pass their exams
Third conditional + modal auxiliary verbs	<i>Might and could</i> sense of past possibility Note: It is not possible to use <i>should</i> in the main clause of a third-conditional sentence.	If my college had provided more courses, I might/could have graduated in four instead of six years.
First conditional with <i>when, as soon as, and unless</i>	a) <i>When</i> suggestion that event is definitely going to happen b) <i>As soon as</i> idea that event will happen immediately c) <i>Unless</i> : same meaning as "if not"	a) When the college adopts mobile learning, most students will be pleased. b) As soon as mobile learning is adopted, students will need to have smart phones. c) Unless the college adopts mobile learning, exam results will continue to fall.
First conditional with <i>should</i>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> More formal than with <i>if</i> Often used in formal documents and letters 	Should you require any assistance, please feel free to ask. (If you require any assistance, ...)
Second conditional with <i>was</i>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Less formal than <i>were</i> Non-standard form 	If was you, I would make use of the Student Learning Office. (If I were you, ...)
Second conditional with <i>were/was to</i>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Same meaning as the more usual form with past-tense verb: "If I graduated in three years, ..." The use of <i>were to</i> adds formality. 	a) If I were to graduate in three years, I would be amazed. b) If I was to graduate in three years, I would be amazed.
Third conditional with <i>had I</i>	More formal than <i>if I had</i>	Had I studied foreign languages at university, I'd be more employable now. (If I had studied foreign languages at university, ...)

PARALLEL STRUCTURE

The term parallel structure (also known as *parallelism*) refers to the use of the same types of words and phrases by writers when they provide a series of items or examples in a sentence. In academic writing, the use of parallel structure adds cohesion to sentences and accords equal importance to ideas. Consider the examples below:

1. Solar energy is cheap, clean, renewable, and effective. (parallel)
2. Solar energy is cheap, clean, renewable, and delivers power efficiently. (not parallel)

Sentence 1 has parallel structure because each of the four items in the series is an adjective: *cheap*, *clean*, *renewable*, and *effective*. Sentence 2 does not have parallel structure because three of the four items are adjectives (*cheap*, *clean*, *renewable*), but the fourth is a verb phrase (*delivers power efficiently*).

1. Solar power costs less than other energy forms, uses natural energy sources, and delivers power efficiently. (parallel)
2. Solar power has three main benefits: it costs less than other energy forms, uses natural energy sources, and efficient power delivery. (not parallel)

Sentence 1 has parallel structure because each of the three benefits includes a verb: **costs** less than other energy forms, **uses** natural energy sources, and **delivers** power efficiently. Sentence 2 does not have parallel structure because the first two benefits include verbs while the third is a noun phrase: *efficient power delivery*.

Different Forms of Parallel Structure

The following are the most common parts of a sentence that may, or may not, form parallel structures.

Adjectives and Adverbs

1. Solar energy is **cheap**, **clean**, **renewable**, and **effective**. (parallel)
2. The new wind power policy was implemented **quickly**, **fairly**, and **efficiently**. (parallel)
3. The new wind power policy was implemented **fairly**, **efficiently**, and **in two years**. (not parallel)

Sentence 1 has parallel structure because each item is an adjective. Sentence 2 also has parallel structure because each item is a single word adverb. Sentence 3 does not have parallel structure because two single-word adverbs are followed by a preposition phrase: *in two years*.

A gerund is a verb + *ing* that functions as a noun in a sentence, and an infinitive is the form of a verb that follows *to*.

Gerunds and Infinitives

1. Nuclear energy is often applauded for **reducing** carbon emissions, **providing** a reliable energy supply, and **cutting** fuel bills. (parallel)
2. All energy providers aim to **reduce** carbon emissions, **provide** a reliable energy supply, and **cut** fuel bills. (parallel)
3. Nuclear energy is often applauded for **reducing** carbon emissions, **the provision** of reliable energy, and **because it cuts fuel bills**. (not parallel)

The structure is parallel in sentences 1 and 2 because the actions are expressed as gerunds and infinitives, respectively. The structure of sentence 3 is not parallel because the actions are expressed as a gerund, a noun phrase, and a clause.

Verbs Followed by a Gerund or an Infinitive

When a verb can be followed by either a gerund or an infinitive, keep the structure parallel.

1. Due to public pressure, energy suppliers began **consulting** with local communities, **implementing** environmental audits, and **promoting** the benefits of cheap energy. (parallel)
2. Due to public pressure, energy suppliers began to **consult** with local communities, **implement** environmental audits, and **promote** the benefits of cheap energy. (parallel)
3. Due to public pressure, energy suppliers began **consulting** with local communities, **implementing** environmental audits, and **to promote** the benefits of cheap energy. (not parallel)

Sentences 1 and 2 have parallel structure because they contain series of gerunds and infinitives, respectively. The structure of sentence 3 is not parallel because the series contains two gerunds, followed by an infinitive: *to promote*.

Verb Phrases

1. Solar power **costs less than other energy forms**, **uses natural energy sources**, and **delivers power efficiently**. (parallel)
2. Solar power is popular because it **uses natural energy sources**, **delivers power efficiently**, and **for its low long-term costs**. (not parallel)

Sentence 1 has parallel structure because each item is a verb phrase. Sentence 2 does not have parallel structure because the first two items are verb phrases while the third is a preposition phrase: *for its low long-term costs*.

TASK 1

Indicate whether the structure of the following sentences is parallel or not. Underline any words, phrases, or clauses that break the parallel structure.

1. Solar energy requires large areas of land, produces power intermittently, and takes time to yield financial returns.
☐ parallel ☐ not parallel
2. Solar energy is environmentally friendly, renewable, and does not pollute the air.
☐ parallel ☐ not parallel

3. The new wind power station was set up within three years, built on budget, and welcomed by the local community.
☐ parallel ☐ not parallel
4. This proves that wind power can be set up quickly, cost effective, and welcomed by communities.
☐ parallel ☐ not parallel

TASK 2

Rewrite any sentences that do not have parallel structure. Not all of the sentences require changes.

1. Solar energy requires large areas of land, cannot produce power continuously, and is slow to yield financial returns.

2. The new wind power station was set up within three years, popular with the local community, and built on budget.

3. Solar power has three main benefits: it is more carbon-friendly than other energy forms, it does not pollute the air, and its popularity with the public.

4. The new-generation nuclear power station was built quickly, fairly, and efficiently.

5. The energy produced from the nuclear power plant will reduce carbon emissions, provide a reliable energy supply, and cut fuel bills.

6. The owners of the plant have three key aims: to provide power to hundreds of thousands of homes, to meet government production targets, and low carbon emissions.

7. Solar panels are cheap, efficient, and do not harm the environment.

8. Many environmentalist groups are known for opposing nuclear energy, promoting solar power, and their support for other renewable sources.

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SUMMARY

PARALLEL STRUCTURE

Parts of the Sentence	Parallel Examples	Non-Parallel Example with Explanation
Adjectives and adverbs	<p>Solar energy is cheap, clean, renewable, and effective.</p> <p>The new wind power policy was implemented quickly, fairly, and efficiently.</p>	<p>The new wind power policy was implemented fairly, efficiently, and in two years.</p> <p>The structure is not parallel because two single-word adverbs are followed by a prepositional phrase: <i>in two years</i>.</p>
Gerunds and infinitives	<p>Nuclear energy is often applauded for reducing carbon emissions, providing a reliable energy supply, and cutting fuel bills.</p> <p>All energy providers aim to reduce carbon emissions, provide a reliable energy supply, and cut fuel bills.</p>	<p>Nuclear energy is often applauded for reducing carbon emissions, the provision of reliable energy, and because it cuts fuel bills.</p> <p>The structure is not parallel because the items in the series are a gerund, a noun phrase, and a clause.</p>
Verbs followed by a gerund or an infinitive	<p>Due to public pressure, energy suppliers began consulting with local communities, implementing environmental audits, and promoting the benefits of cheap energy.</p> <p>Due to public pressure, energy suppliers began to consult with local communities, implement environmental audits, and promote the benefits of cheap energy.</p>	<p>Due to public pressure, energy suppliers began consulting with local communities, implementing environmental audits, and to promote the benefits of cheap energy.</p> <p>The structure is not parallel because two gerunds are followed by an infinitive: <i>to promote</i>.</p> <p>When a verb can be followed by either a gerund or an infinitive, keep the structure parallel.</p>
Verb phrases	<p>Solar power costs less than other energy forms, uses natural energy sources, and delivers power efficiently.</p>	<p>Solar power is popular because it uses natural energy sources, delivers power efficiently, and for its low long-term costs.</p> <p>The structure is not parallel because two verb phrases are followed by a prepositional phrase: <i>for its low long-term costs</i>.</p>

MODAL AUXILIARY VERBS TO EXPRESS LIKELIHOOD AND OBLIGATION

Modality

Modal auxiliary verbs express different aspects of modality. The term *modality* refers to the attitude of writers or speakers when they are describing things. Common aspects of modality that are expressed with modal auxiliary verbs are likelihood, obligation, ability, permission, willingness, and necessity.

Other words and phrases in the English language also express modality; for example, *have to* and *ought to* can be used to express obligation. Although some linguists claim that such phrases are not modal auxiliary verbs, they are included in this unit in cases where they express degrees of modality.

When you write essays involving the analysis of problems and solutions, and evaluation, you need to be able to present attitudes clearly. For example, you need to express your view of actions as possible, probable, or certain; equally, if you are arguing that certain actions are required to solve a problem, you should make it clear whether you think there is a strong or mild obligation to apply these solutions.

In this unit, the focus is on modal auxiliary verbs that express likelihood and obligation. Remember that when writers or speakers express likelihood and obligation, they are expressing their attitude: whether they think something is, was, or will be possible, probable, or certain; and whether they believe that there is a strong or mild sense of obligation for something to happen.

Two Ways to Express Attitude

There are always two or more ways to write a sentence expressing modality. In the following examples, sentence 1 expresses likelihood or obligation using a modal auxiliary verb, and sentence 2 expresses the same idea in other terms.

Likelihood: Possibility

1. The government's new policies **may/might/could** protect linguistic minorities.
2. **I think** the government's new policies **will possibly** protect linguistic minorities.

Likelihood: Probability (with Positive or Optimistic Expectation)

1. The government's new policies **should** be successful.
2. **I think** the government's new policies **will probably** be successful.

Mild Obligation

1. Schools **should** do more to help students from all minority backgrounds.
2. **I believe** schools **have an obligation to** do more to help students from all minority backgrounds.

Strong Obligation

1. Schools **must** do more to help students from all minority backgrounds.
2. **I strongly believe** schools **have an obligation to** do more to help students from all minority backgrounds.

The examples above illustrate three important points to remember about modal auxiliary verbs:

1. There are always alternative ways of expressing modality.
2. Modal auxiliary verbs represent the subjective attitude of the speaker.
3. The same modal auxiliary verb can express different aspects of modality. For example, in the sentences above, *should* is used to express probability as well as mild obligation.

MODALITY

LIKELIHOOD

Use the following modal auxiliary verbs to express degrees of likelihood. Affirmative sentences are indicated by a + and negative sentences, by a –.

I'm Certain ...

Will

Time Idea	Examples
Present	Who's texting you? + That will be my boss asking where I am. – It won't be my boss. She's on holiday this week.
Future	+ If someone calls later, it ll be my boss. Tell her I'm on my way. – If someone calls later, it won't be my boss. She's on holiday this week.
Past	Someone called last night. + That will have been my boss. I was running late. – It won't have been my boss. She never calls at night.

Will is used in the examples above to express certainty. The certainty is based on the speaker's knowledge of the habits, routines, and characteristics of her boss.

Must

Time Idea	Examples
Present	Someone's at the door. + That must be my roommate. – That can't be my roommate.
Future	There is no future form of <i>must</i> for certainty.

Time Idea	Examples
Past	Someone called last night. + It must have been my roommate. - It can't/couldn't have been my roommate.

Must is used in the examples above to express certainty. Unlike *will*, *must* gives no indication of knowledge of others' habits, routines, and characteristics.

I Think It's Probable ...

Should

Time Idea	Examples
Present	+ The projector should be working . Let's check. - There *shouldn't be any problems. The projector is brand new.
Future	+ You should pass the exam tomorrow. I'm confident you're ready. - You *shouldn't have any problems tomorrow. Be confident!
Past	+ You *should have passed the exam. What went wrong? - You *shouldn't have failed the exam. What went wrong?

Should is used in the examples above to express probability. The use of *should* for probability expresses an idea of positive or optimistic expectation. Avoid using it in other contexts; for example, if you thought that a friend is probably going to fail his exam, and you said "You should fail," it would sound like you wanted him to fail! Also note the examples marked by an asterisk (*). These examples could be misinterpreted because *should* is also used to express obligation.

I Think It's Possible ...

May, Might, and Could

Time Idea	Examples
Present	+ You may/might/could be in the wrong classroom. Have you checked your planner? - The exam may/might not be in this building. Can you check your planner for me?
Future	+ You may/might/could pass the exam tomorrow. I think you have a chance. - You may/might not pass the exam tomorrow. Prepare yourself.
Past	+ You may/might/could have passed the exam, but you won't know your grade until the end of term. - You may/might not have passed the exam, so you should work hard on your term paper.

May, *might*, and *could* are used in the examples above to express possibility in the affirmative for all time ideas. However, only *may* and *might* can be used in the negative forms, not *could*. The three forms have similar degrees of certainty. *May* is the most common form used in academic writing as it carries a sense of formality.

TASK 1

Fill in the blanks in the sentences below with modal auxiliary verbs that express likelihood. Decide whether the form should be affirmative or negative and whether the time idea is present, future, or past. Use the verbs (and adverbs) in brackets, and follow the prompts in parentheses.

1. It _____ [be] easy moving to another country as an international student. (I'm sure it wasn't.)
2. You _____ [miss] your friends and family. (I'm certain you are.)
3. Working for a few years _____ [also be] an option. (I think it would have been possible.)
4. You _____ [experience] any problems getting used to life as a student here and succeeding in your studies. (I'm optimistic: I think it's probable that you won't.)
5. You _____ [even decide] to live and work here for a few years after you graduate. (I think it will be possible.)

MODALITY

OBLIGATION

Use the modal auxiliary verbs below, and the following phrases, to express degrees of obligation. Affirmative sentences are indicated by a + and negative sentences, by a –.

Strong Sense of Obligation

Must

Time Idea	Examples
Present	+ You must focus more. I'm trying to explain! – You don't have to study much because you're so clever! – Students *mustn't bring / aren't allowed to bring phones into the exam room.
Future	+ You must study harder next year. – You don't/won't have to study harder next year. – Students *mustn't bring / won't be allowed to bring phones into the exam room tomorrow.
Past	+ I had to study hard, but I passed! – I didn't have to study much. It was easy. – Students *weren't allowed to bring phones into the exam room.

Must is used in the affirmative examples above to express strong obligation for present and future time. The affirmative form of *must* in the past tense is *had to*.

Use *have to* for most negative sentences; *mustn't* is used in the negative form only when something is forbidden, as illustrated in the examples marked with an asterisk. Use *mustn't* or *not allowed to* for prohibition in the present and future, but only *wasn't/weren't allowed to* in the past.

Have To

Time Idea	Examples
Present	+ You have to pay attention to this. You need to know it to pass the quiz. – You don't have to study much to get good grades. You're so lucky!
Future	+ You (will) have to study hard next year if you want to get a scholarship. – You don't/won't have to improve your grades next year to keep the scholarship.
Past	+ I had to study hard, but I passed! – I didn't have to study much. It was easy.

The use of *have to* in the examples above expresses strong obligation, as does *must* in the previous examples. However, there is a difference between the sense of obligation in *must* and *have to* in some cases, as the following sentences illustrate:

1. You **must focus** more. I'm trying to explain! (internal obligation)
2. You **have to pay attention** to this for the scholarship. (external obligation)

In sentence 1, the speaker uses *must* to emphasize that the obligation is internal; in other words, it is up to the person being addressed to make the effort to focus more. In sentence 2, the speaker uses *have to* because the obligation is external to the person; it comes from an external source: the scholarship requirements.

Mild Sense of Obligation

Should

Time Idea	Examples
Present	+ Schools should do more to support minority languages. + You *should consider getting a private tutor for help. – Schools shouldn't spend so much time on formal assessment. – You *shouldn't waste money on a private tutor.
Future	+ Schools should increase their budgets for teaching assistants next year. + You *should live near the campus when you start college in September. – Schools shouldn't reduce their budgets for teaching assistants next year. – You *shouldn't live far from the campus when you start college in September.
Past	+ The school should have done more to support its international students. + You *should have considered getting a private tutor for help. – The school shouldn't have focused so much on formal assessment. – You *shouldn't have wasted your money on a private tutor.

Should is used in the sentences above to express mild obligation. The negative *shouldn't* and the past form *should have* are used consistently, without changes in meaning. The sentences marked with an asterisk express recommendation.

TASK 2

Fill in the blanks in the sentences below with modal auxiliary verbs that express obligation. Decide whether the form should be affirmative or negative and whether the time idea is present, future, or past. Use the verbs in brackets, and follow the prompts in parentheses.

1. I _____ [study] harder! (It's up to me to achieve this.)
2. I _____ [maintain] a B average to keep my scholarship. (It's a requirement of the scholarship.)
3. Next term, I _____ [take] four courses. I have no choice. (It's a condition of the program.)
4. Students _____ [smoke] within 15 metres of any building. It's the law (The law forbids smoking near buildings.)
5. Now that I'm living on campus, I _____ [take] the bus to class every day. (I can walk.)
6. Last week, I _____ [prepare] for two mid-term exams. (The mid-terms were compulsory.)
7. You _____ [take] too many courses during your first term. (I'm making a recommendation.)

Other Ways to Express Obligation

Need To

Need to is used to express necessity. It is often used as an alternative to *have to* when there is little difference in meaning between necessity and obligation. The examples below show the different forms of *need to*.

Time Idea	Examples
Present	+ You need to ask someone to lend you their lecture notes. - You don't need to ask anyone for extra help. You're doing fine. - You *needn't ask anyone for extra help. You're doing fine.
Future	+ You (will) need to take the bus to the downtown campus tomorrow. - I won't/don't need to ask for a ride to the downtown campus tomorrow. - I *needn't ask for a ride to the downtown campus tomorrow.
Past	+ I needed to ask for a ride to the campus this morning. There were no buses. - You needn't have given me a ride to campus. I could have walked. Thanks, though. - He didn't need to give me a ride to campus. I walked.

Need to is used in the present and future forms and means “it is / will be necessary” and “it isn’t / won’t be necessary.” The negative form *needn’t* is marked with an asterisk because it is less common and rather old-fashioned. In the past negative form, there is an important distinction to note between *needn’t have* and *didn’t need to*: use *needn’t have* when something took place but was unnecessary, use *didn’t need to* when something did not take place and was unnecessary.

She gave me a ride —> You **needn’t have given** me a ride to campus.

He said “I needn’t do it.” —> He **didn’t need to give** me a ride to campus.

Ought To

Ought to can be used as an alternative to *should* for likelihood and obligation. The negative form of *ought to* is *ought not (to)* or *oughtn’t (to)*. The past forms are *ought to have* and *ought not (to) have*. *Ought to* is more common in British English and often seems rather old-fashioned and formal. The negative and past forms are not commonly used in modern English.

- + You **ought to pass** the exam. (I think it’s probable, and I’m hopeful.)
- + Schools **ought to do** more to support minority languages. (I think it is their duty.)

Have Got To

Have got to is commonly used, especially in British English, as a less formal alternative to *have to*. The negative forms are *hasn’t/haven’t got to*. The past forms are *had to* and *didn’t have to*.

- + You **have got to pay attention** to this. You need to know it to pass the quiz.
- You **haven’t got to study** much to get good grades. You’re so lucky!
- + I **had to** study so hard!
- You **didn’t have to** study much. Lucky you!

TASK 3

Rewrite the paragraph below about a student’s life during the first term of a new degree program. Use modal auxiliary verbs and phrases of likelihood and obligation that you have studied in this unit. Focus on the underlined words, which express modality.

When I got a call at 8:00 last night, I said to myself, “I’m certain that is my parents calling as they always call at this time on a Sunday.” They wanted to know how I was and reminded me that I am required to maintain a B average as a condition of my student visa. They also said it was up to me to be focused and organized and that no one else can help me with that. I am certain that my parents are missing me a lot and want to come to visit. It is probable (and I hope) that they will be able to visit me during spring break next year. If so, I’m certain they won’t have as bad a time as they did when they visited my brother at college last year. When they bought their tickets to Los Angeles, the travel agent forgot to tell them that it was necessary for them to have a biometric

This image shows a blank sheet of white paper with horizontal ruling lines. The lines are light gray, except for one solid green line near the top and bottom edges. There are also dashed green lines in the middle section.

Find more exercises
on modal auxiliary
verbs online

MODAL AUXILIARY VERBS TO EXPRESS LIKELIHOOD

Time Idea	Examples	Explanation
Probability		
Present	+ The projector should be working . Let's check. – There *shouldn't be any problems. The projector is brand new.	Should is used to express probability. The use of <i>should</i> for probability carries an idea of positive, optimistic expectation. The examples marked by an asterisk could be misinterpreted as mild obligation.
Future	+ You should pass the exam tomorrow. I'm confident you're ready. – You *shouldn't have any problems tomorrow. Be confident!	
Past	+ You *should have passed the exam. What went wrong? – You *shouldn't have failed the exam. What went wrong?	
Possibility		
Present	+ You may/might/could be in the wrong classroom. Have you checked your planner? – The exam may/might not be in this building. Can you check, please?	May, might, and could express possibility in the affirmative for all time ideas. For possibility, only <i>may</i> and <i>might</i> can be used in the negative forms, not <i>could</i> . The three forms have similar degrees of certainty. <i>May</i> is the most common form used in academic writing as it carries a sense of formality.
Future	+ You may/might/could pass the exam tomorrow. You have a chance. – You may/might not pass the exam tomorrow. Prepare yourself.	
Past	+ You may/might/could have passed the exam, but you won't know your grade until the end of term. – You may/might not have passed the exam, so you should work hard on your term paper.	

SUMMARY

MODAL AUXILIARY VERBS TO EXPRESS OBLIGATION

Time Idea	Examples	Explanation
Strong Obligation		
Present	+ You must focus more. I'm trying to explain! – You don't have to study much because you're so clever! – Students *mustn't bring / aren't allowed to bring phones into the exam room.	Must expresses strong obligation in the present and future; the affirmative form of <i>must</i> in the past is <i>had to</i> . Use <i>have to</i> for negative sentences. <i>Mustn't</i> is used only when something is forbidden—see the examples marked with an asterisk. Use only <i>wasn't/weren't allowed to</i> for prohibition in the past.
Future	+ You must study harder next year. – You don't/won't have to study harder next year. – Students *mustn't bring / won't be allowed to bring phones into the exam room tomorrow.	
Past	+ I had to study hard, but I passed! – I didn't have to study much. It was easy. – Students *weren't allowed to bring phones into the exam room.	
Present	+ You have to pay attention. You need to know this for the quiz. – You don't have to study much to get good grades. You're lucky!	Have to expresses strong obligation, as does <i>must</i> .
Future	+ You (will) have to study hard next year to get a scholarship. – You don't/won't have to improve your grades next year to keep the scholarship.	
Past	+ I had to study hard, but I passed! – I didn't have to study much. It was easy.	

Time Idea	Examples	Explanation
Internal versus External Obligation		
	a) You must focus more. I'm trying to explain!	a) The obligation is internal: it is up to the person being addressed to become more focused.
	b) You have to pay attention to this for the scholarship	b) The obligation is external: it comes from the scholarship requirements
Mild Obligation		
Present	+ Schools should do more to support minority languages + You *should consider getting a private tutor for help – Schools shouldn't spend so much time on formal assessment – You *shouldn't waste money on a private tutor.	Should expresses mild obligation, without changes in meaning in the negative and past forms <i>shouldn't</i> and <i>should have</i> .
Future	+ Schools should increase their budgets for TAs next year + You *should live near the campus in September – Schools shouldn't reduce their budgets for TAs next year. – You *shouldn't live far from the campus in September.	The sentences marked with an asterisk express recommendation.
Past	+ The school should have done more for international students. + You *should have considered getting a private tutor for help. – The school shouldn't have focused so much on assessment. – You *shouldn't have wasted your money on a private tutor.	
Other Forms		
Present	+ You need to ask someone to lend you their lecture notes – You don't need to ask anyone for extra help. You're doing fine. – You *needn't ask anyone for extra help. You're doing fine.	Need to expresses necessity and can be used instead of <i>have to</i> for obligation. <i>Needn't</i> is marked with an asterisk because it is less common and sounds old-fashioned
Future	+ You (will) need to take the bus to the campus tomorrow – I won't/don't need to ask for a ride to the campus tomorrow – I *needn't ask for a ride to the campus tomorrow.	Use <i>needn't have</i> when something took place but was unnecessary. Use <i>didn't need to</i> when something did not take place and was unnecessary.
Past	+ I needed to get a ride from a friend. There were no buses. – You needn't have given me a ride. I could have walked. – He didn't need to give me a ride to campus. I walked.	
Present	+ a) You ought to pass the exam. + b) Schools ought to do more to support minority languages. – a) You ought not to fail the exam. – b) Schools ought not (to) reduce their budgets for minority language programs.	Ought to means the same as <i>should</i> for likelihood (a) and obligation (b). It is more common in British English, and more formal than <i>should</i> .
Past	+ a) You ought to have passed the exam. What happened? – b) You ought not (to) have said that. He was offended.	The negative and past forms are uncommon in modern English.
Present	+ You have got to pay attention to pass the quiz – You haven't got to study much to get good grades. You're lucky!	Have got to is common, especially in British English, as a less formal alternative to <i>have to</i> .
Past	+ You had to pay attention to the questions because the sound quality was poor. – I didn't have to study hard for the test. It was easy.	The past forms are the same as for <i>have to</i> : <i>had to</i> , <i>didn't have to</i> .

INVERSION FOR EMPHASIS

It is possible to add emphasis to sentences by adding emphatic adverbs or adverbial phrases at the beginning of the independent clause. These are generally words or phrases that have a negative connotation, and they are usually placed at the beginning of the sentence.

EXPRESSIONS

EMPHATIC ADVERBS

When the following emphatic adverbs (in bold) are placed at the beginning of an independent clause, the usual subject-verb order (underlined) is reversed.

1. **At no time** should residents leave their homes during a tornado.
2. **Hardly** had the rain ended when our home became flooded.
3. **Little** did we know that the storm would last for three days.
4. **Never** have I been so frightened as during that storm.
5. **No sooner** had the rain ended than the heavy winds began.
6. **Not once** did I panic while I was inside my house.
7. **Not only** were trees felled by the winds, (but) local rivers also flooded.
8. **Not since** my childhood have I lived through such extreme weather.
9. **Not until** the weather settled did life return to normal.
10. **Only after** the weather settled did life return to normal.
11. **On no account** should people leave their homes during a tornado.
12. **Rarely** have I witnessed such rain damage.
13. **Seldom** does so much rain fall in one day.
14. **So heavy** was the rain that local rivers broke their banks.
15. **Under no circumstances** should you approach a fallen power line.
16. People living away from the coast were not affected. **Neither** were the people living on higher land.
17. People living away from the coast were not affected. **Nor** were the people living on higher land.

FORM

INVERSION

Three Forms of Inversion

When beginning independent clauses with certain emphatic adverbs, change the subject-verb order in one of the following three ways:

1. When the main verb is *to be*, change the subject-verb order.

Climate change is the result of both human activity and natural phenomena.

Not only is climate change the result of human activity, it is also caused by natural phenomena.

2. For verbs with auxiliaries, change the subject auxiliary order.

Pacific storms have become so severe that evacuation of communities is now a regular occurrence.

So severe have Pacific storms become that evacuation of communities is now a regular occurrence.

3. For other verbs, use question structure, with a form of the auxiliary verb *to do*.

El Niño rarely leaves coastal Pacific communities unscathed.

Rarely does El Niño leave coastal Pacific communities unscathed.

Forms without Inversion

If the emphatic adverbs listed on page 259 are used within an independent clause that begins with *it is/was*, the subject-verb order in the following dependent clause (*that ...*) is not reversed.

Not until the end of the storm did people venture out of their shelters.

(subject-verb order changed)

It was not until the end of the storm that people ventured out of their shelters.

(subject-verb order unchanged)

Only after coastal erosion affected communities was action taken.

(subject-verb order changed)

It was only after coastal erosion affected communities that action was taken.

(subject-verb order unchanged)

Not Only

If the independent clause begins with *not only*, it requires inversion when the writer wishes to emphasize the action of the verb, as in the following example:

Not only does El Niño damage coastal communities, it also affects people living further inland.

However, in other cases, an independent clause can contain the phrase *not only*, or even begin with it, and yet not require inversion, as illustrated in the following examples:

El Niño affects **not only** coastal communities **but also** people living further inland.

Not only coastal communities **but also** people living further inland suffer during El Niño years.

In these examples, there is no inversion because *not only* is not an emphatic adverb, modifying the verb *affects* or *suffer*, but the first part of a correlative conjunction (*not only ... but also*) joining two noun phrases: *coastal communities* and *people living further inland*.

Learn more about correlative conjunctions as linking words in Appendix 1, p. 276.

TASK 1

Rewrite each of the following sentences to add emphasis, beginning with the emphatic adverb in parentheses.

1. People living in the town are not allowed to return until the storm clears. (Under no circumstances)

2. The storm damaged many small homes in the area as well as local crops. (Not only)

3. Local residents were able to return home two months later. (Only after)

4. A storm of such intensity had not struck the town since 2005. (Not since)

5. People living in the town were not allowed to return until the storm had cleared. (Not until)

6. People with homes in the area should not return without authorization. (At no time)

7. People with homes in the area should not return until the flooding subsides. (On no account)

8. Areas of Argentina and southern Brazil are seldom affected by El Niño-related extreme weather events. (Seldom)

9. In all its history, the coastal town has rarely been so badly affected by storms. (Rarely)

10. The town was so badly affected by the storm that many residents were forced to live in temporary shelters. (So badly)

11. People fleeing the flooding had no shelter. They didn't have food either. (Nor)

12. As soon as the storm cleared, people left their homes to assess the damage.
(No sooner)

13. As soon as the storm cleared, people left their homes to assess the damage.
(Hardly)

14. They were completely unaware that an even stronger storm was on its way.
(Little)

15. Local people were not aware that a new storm was on its way. The meteorologists weren't either. (Neither)

16. During my 20 years in the country, I have never experienced such extreme weather. (Not once)

17. Extreme weather has never been so severe as during the last seven years.
(Never)

TASK 2

The following sentences are from the results on a search engine when the key words *extreme weather* were combined with the emphatic adverbs listed on page 259. In the sentences, the adverbs have been replaced with blanks. Fill in each blank with an emphatic adverb that fits conceptually and grammatically. Try to use each adverb only once. In some cases, more than one answer is possible.

1. The signs of climate change are right in front of us, says the assessment's chapter on agriculture, one of the few comprehensive reports to explicitly point to certain events—like the 2012 drought—as an example of the consequences of climate change. _____ will weather affect crop growth, but it will encourage invasive species and pests, lower the quality of forage for livestock and lead to changing land uses across the country, the report says.
(<https://www.scientificamerican.com/article/deadly-heat-waves-flooding-rains-crop-failures-among-climate-change-plagues-already-afflicting-americans/>)

2. A near-record year for wind events. _____ 2007 have so many storms exceeded gusts of 90 kilometres per hour and Alberta broke the previous record with 41 wind storms—up from the high of 37 in 2007.
(http://www.huffingtonpost.ca/2012/12/20/calgary-hail-stor-environment-canadas-top-10-extreme-weather-events_n_2339941.html)
3. As the sea ice melts, sea surface temperatures will remain at around zero degree Celsius (32 °F) for as long as there is ice in the water, since the extra energy will first go into melting the ice. _____ the ice has melted will the extra energy start raising the temperature of the water.
(<http://arctic-news.blogspot.ca/2016/07/extreme-weather-events.html>)
4. The Himalayan Mountains have long kept a dark secret. In 1942, hundreds of human skeletons dating back to the 9th century were discovered around an upland lake in northern India. They had all died at the same time. But _____ 2007 did scientists offer an explanation for their mysterious demise. All the bodies showed similar wounds: deep cracks in the skull. Scientists came up with a stunning explanation. They were killed by cricket-ball-sized hailstones.
(https://www.allianz.com/en/about_us/open-knowledge/topics/environment/articles/130903-hailstorms-threaten-rising-losses.html/)
5. There are many caves and potholes. Unless you are part of a properly equipped, experienced and supervised group, stay well away from them. The substantial quarry on the Southernmost section of the reserve on Moughton Fell is a fully operational site, and _____ should you cross its perimeter. If you hear a siren, it may indicate imminent blasting at the quarry—you should move well away from the boundary.
(<http://www.inclusivelondon.com/information/Ingleborough%20National%20Nature%20Reserve/103010/info/information.aspx>)
6. To reduce your chance of encountering a bear: travel in large groups; avoid areas of obvious recent bear activity; avoid carrion (dead meat); camp well inland of the coast or in areas with good visibility in all directions; and cook less odorous food. _____ should you approach a polar bear. If a bear is encountered, noise-makers such as bear bangers and air horns may scare the bear away. Pepper spray, used at close range, may deter polar bears, but it has not been thoroughly tested.
(<http://www.pc.gc.ca/eng/pn-np/nt/aulavik/visit/visit4/a.aspx>)

7. I have lived in Australia for 16 years (minus the two I spent wandering the globe), and in all that time _____ did a cyclone even come close to where we live in south-east Queensland. Now we had two bearing down on us, with one showing the possibility of changing that fact very quickly!

(<https://onewanderlustlife.wordpress.com/2015/02/23/australian-summer-extreme-weather-edition/>)

8. _____ does one hear any working scientist say that science is “settled.” Science is never settled. It is, by definition, an ever-evolving body of human knowledge, and climate science is exactly like all the other sciences in that way.

(<http://www.nytimes.com/interactive/projects/cp/climate/2015-paris-climate-talks/how-can-science-be-settled>)

9. Pagliuca, Stephenson and McKenzie, along with their guests, awoke to a brilliant sunrise early on April 11. The coal stove in the Auto Road’s Stage Office (the Observatory’s early home) took the chill off the room. “_____ did we realize as we were enjoying a fine view of the Atlantic Ocean that we were to experience during the next 48 hours one of the worst storms ever recorded in the history of any observatory.” —Log Book entry, Sal Pagliuca

(<https://www.mountwashington.org/about-us/history/world-record-wind.aspx>)

10. Air France said it had cancelled 210 flights and booked more than 2,000 hotel rooms for its stranded passengers. At sea, the ferry services connecting the northwestern department of Brittany with nearby islands were all suspended—and the inaugural voyage of the Roscoff-Plymouth ferry service was postponed. _____ bad was the weather that northeastern France was put on “orange alert” and the French navy deployed three rescue vessels to be on stand by in case of maritime accidents.

(<http://www.telegraph.co.uk/news/worldnews/europe/france/4580079/French-storms-leave-half-a-million-without-electricity.html>)

11. Ladies and gentlemen, _____ has the global community been under such stress. The ties that bind us, as humankind, are fraying. We must work especially hard to preserve them, at this critical juncture, in the interests of our common future. Thank you very much and I will be happy to answer your questions. —Ban Ki Moon

(http://unic.org.in/display.php?E-1068&K-Press_Conference)

12. The potato has also given traders like Amina Nakate a business edge. At her stall in Nylon market, Mbale, time passes quickly for Nakate. _____ has she served a customer than another falls in line. In her 10 years of trading there, none of her products—like plantain and cassava—have sold as fast as the sweet potato, she said. In a day, she can sell about five 200kg bags of the product, yielding an income of 700,000 shillings (\$208) per day—compared to \$50 previously.
(<http://www.braced.org/news/i/?id=d7a1eaab-3dcf-4488-b1f2-4a8030777228>)
13. If you are happy to be contacted by a BBC journalist please leave a telephone number that we can contact you on. In some cases a selection of your comments will be published, displaying your name as you provide it and location, unless you state otherwise. Your contact details will never be published. When sending us pictures, video or eyewitness accounts _____ should you endanger yourself or others, take any unnecessary risks or infringe any laws. Please ensure you have read the terms and conditions.
(<http://www.bbc.com/news/world-europe-36483045>)
14. In the beginning, there were no searing head winds, but after the Hawi turnaround, all that changed. The relentless cross winds hit at 35 mph. The tall grass bent over backward and told me this was going to take a while. I needed to be patient, not become agitated or frustrated. I signed up for this, right? After a few more hours battling the winds and extreme heat, _____ was I so happy to see an airport. Landmark! It was 10 miles to the end of this oven-like ride, 125 degrees from lava rocks and road, with vicious winds.
(<http://www.cnn.com/2015/10/30/health/ironman-championship-final-hawaii/>)
15. _____ did I know that exactly two months later, the largest scientific organization in the world and publisher of the leading academic journal *Science* would launch an initiative aimed at doing just that—move the conversation forward by telling Americans “What We Know.” It boils down to three main points—97 percent of climate scientists agree that climate change is here and now, that this means we risk abrupt and irreversible changes to the climate, and the sooner we act, the lower the costs and risks we face.
(<http://www.ecowatch.com/how-scientists-are-moving-climate-change-conversation-forward-1881880099.html>)



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on inversion for
emphasis online

Expression/Form	Examples
Emphatic Adverbs	
<i>At no time</i>	At no time should residents leave their homes during a tornado.
<i>Hardly</i>	Hardly had the rain ended when our home became flooded.
<i>Little</i>	Little <u>did we know</u> that the storm would last for three days.
<i>Never</i>	Never <u>have I been</u> so frightened as during that storm.
<i>No sooner</i>	No sooner had the rain ended than the heavy winds began.
<i>Not once</i>	Not once <u>did I panic</u> while I was inside my house.
<i>Not only</i>	Not only <u>were trees felled</u> by the winds, (but) local rivers also flooded.
<i>Not since</i>	Not since my childhood <u>have I lived through</u> such extreme weather.
<i>Not until</i>	Not until the weather settled <u>did life return</u> to normal.
<i>Only after</i>	Only after the weather settled <u>did life return</u> to normal.
<i>On no account</i>	On no account <u>should people leave</u> their homes during a tornado.
<i>Rarely</i>	Rarely <u>have I witnessed</u> such rain damage.
<i>Seldom</i>	Seldom <u>does so much rain fall</u> in one day.
<i>So + adjective</i>	So heavy <u>was the rain</u> that local rivers broke their banks.
<i>Under no circumstances</i>	Under no circumstances <u>should you approach</u> a fallen power line.
<i>Neither</i>	People living away from the coast were not affected. Neither <u>were the people</u> living on higher land.
<i>Nor</i>	People living away from the coast were not affected. Nor <u>were the people</u> living on higher land.
Inversion	
<i>To be as main verb</i>	a) <u>Climate change is</u> the result of both human activity and natural phenomena. b) Not only <u>is climate change</u> the result of human activity, it is also caused by natural phenomena.
<i>Verbs with auxiliaries</i>	a) Pacific storms have become so severe that evacuation of communities is now a regular occurrence. b) So severe <u>have Pacific storms become</u> that evacuation of communities is now a regular occurrence.
<i>Other verbs</i>	a) <u>El Niño rarely leaves</u> coastal Pacific communities unscathed. b) Rarely <u>does El Niño leave</u> coastal Pacific communities unscathed.
<i>Within an independent clause that begins with it is/was: no inversion</i>	It was not until the end of the storm that <u>people ventured</u> out of their shelters. It was only after coastal erosion affected communities that <u>action was taken</u> .
<i>Use of not only without inversion (correlative conjunction not only... but also)</i>	Not only <u>does El Niño damage</u> coastal communities, it also affects people living further inland. (inversion) <i>BUT</i> <u>El Niño affects</u> not only coastal communities but also people living further inland (no inversion) Not only coastal communities but also people living further inland <u>suffer</u> during El Niño years. (no inversion)

APPENDICES



LINKING WORDS IN ACADEMIC WRITING

Linking words in academic writing connect ideas and add cohesion. In doing so, they make it easier for readers to understand the interrelationships between ideas, for example, emphasis, addition, cause and effect, and contrast.

In this appendix, you will study five groups of linking words:

- conjunctive adverbs
- coordinators
- subordinators
- correlative conjunctions
- other linking words and phrases

CONJUNCTIVE ADVERBS

Conjunctive adverbs are used to join ideas and arguments in different clauses and sentences. The conjunctive adverb you choose to use gives an indication to your reader of how you think your ideas are related. Conjunctive adverbs can be placed at the beginning of independent clauses, in the middle, or at the end.

Meaning

Conjunctive adverbs convey a range of meanings, most commonly:

- addition: *moreover, in addition*
- contrast: *however, nonetheless*
- result: *therefore, consequently*

The Mediterranean diet has been linked to reduced rates of heart disease; **moreover**, it may also reduce cancer rates. (addition)

Many doctors recommend olive oil; **however**, it is more expensive than other oils used for cooking. (contrast)

The Mediterranean diet is low in unhealthy fats; **therefore**, it may reduce cholesterol. (result)

As you have learned in the preceding chapters, conjunctive adverbs and adverbial phrases are also used for other functions, including the following:

- introducing: *to begin with, first(ly)*
- summarizing: *in brief, in short, to summarize, to sum up*
- concluding: *in conclusion, to conclude*

Conjunctive Adverbs That Refer to a Previous Idea

Certain conjunctive adverbs are used specifically to connect the second part of a sentence, or a new sentence, to an idea stated previously. The conjunctive adverb may show contrast with the previous idea (*in contrast, on the other hand*), contradict or challenge it (*instead, on the contrary*), or restate it, with or without expanding on it (*in other words, specifically*).

Accuracy and Punctuation

Use conjunctive adverbs between, within, or after independent clauses. If the conjunctive adverb is placed between two independent clauses, set it off with a period or semicolon, and a comma. If it is placed within an independent clause, set it off with commas.

Between Independent Clauses

The Mediterranean diet has been linked to reduced rates of heart disease. **Moreover**, it may also reduce cancer rates. (with a period and comma)

The Mediterranean diet has been linked to reduced rates of heart disease; **moreover**, it may also reduce cancer rates. (with a semicolon and comma)

Within an Independent Clause

Some doctors, **however**, believe the health benefits are overstated. (with commas)

After an Independent Clause

Some doctors believe the health benefits are overstated, **however**. (with a comma and period)

Style

Conjunctive adverbs add a sense of formality to your writing. However, if you begin too many successive independent clauses with conjunctive adverbs, your writing may lack flow and appear formulaic. If this is the case, consider combining conjunctive adverbs with alternatives. Compare the following two paragraphs:

The Mediterranean diet has been linked to reduced rates of heart disease; **moreover**, it may also reduce cancer rates. **As a result**, many doctors recommend olive oil. **However**, olive oil is unaffordable for many people. **Therefore**, nutritionists should suggest cheaper alternatives. (formulaic and lacking in flow)

The Mediterranean diet, which has been linked to reduced rates of heart disease, may also reduce cancer rates. Many doctors are, therefore, recommending olive oil. Because olive oil is unaffordable for many people, nutritionists should also suggest cheaper alternatives. (rewritten for more variety and better flow)

Some writers would not set off *therefore* with commas in the second example because they feel the commas break the flow of the sentence.

Summary: Conjunctive Adverbs and Adverbial Phrases

Conjunctive Adverbs	Use	Examples
Addition		
<i>additionally</i> <i>furthermore</i> <i>in addition</i> <i>moreover</i>	To add ideas	Olive oil is high in monounsaturated fats; additionally / furthermore / in addition / moreover , it contains polyphenols, which may prevent heart disease.
<i>equally</i> <i>likewise</i> <i>similarly</i>	To express similarity	Olive oil is widely used in salads. Equally/ Likewise/Similarly , grapeseed oil is a healthy option for salads and mayonnaise.
<i>in other words</i> <i>specifically</i>	To restate, or expand on, a previously stated idea	Foods high in sugar and saturated fat are linked to poor health; in other words , people should avoid them. Foods high in sugar and saturated fat are linked to poor health, specifically , obesity and heart disease.
Contrast		
<i>however</i> <i>nevertheless</i> <i>nonetheless</i> <i>still</i>	To express contrast	Olive oil is a healthy option. However/ Nevertheless/Nonetheless/Still , it is too expensive for many families to use regularly.
<i>as opposed to</i> <i>in contrast</i> <i>on the other hand</i>	To express contrast with a previously stated idea	Processed food is often unhealthy as opposed to homemade meals, which tend to contain less sugar, salt, and fat. Processed food with high levels of sugar, salt, and fat should be avoided. In contrast / On the other hand , homemade alternatives can offer a balanced and healthy diet.
<i>instead</i> <i>on the contrary</i> <i>rather</i>	To contradict or challenge a previously stated idea	Many people believe low-fat food to be healthy. instead / on the contrary / rather , a balanced diet can be more beneficial.
Result		
<i>as a result</i> <i>consequently</i> <i>therefore</i> <i>thus</i>	To describe results or effects	The Mediterranean diet may help prevent heart disease. As a result / Consequently / Therefore / Thus , it has gained in popularity.

Note that *in other words* is set off by a semicolon and a comma because it precedes an independent clause, but *specifically* is set off by commas because it is placed within the independent clause.

Coordinators are used for two main purposes: to link two or more independent clauses and to join items in a series or list. There are seven coordinators, known as the “FANBOYS”: **For, And, Nor, But, Or, Yet, So**.

Meaning

When you link two ideas with a coordinator, it is important to consider the relationship between the two ideas and to select the coordinator that best conveys your intended meaning. The FANBOYS coordinators convey the following meanings:

- addition (including alternatives): *and, nor, or*
- contrast: *but, yet*
- cause and effect: *for, so*

The final exam was yesterday, **and** 80 students were present. (addition)

The exam was difficult, **but** some students still got high grades. (contrast)

I knew the exam would be difficult, **so** I prepared for two weeks. (result)

Emphasis

If a writer joins independent clauses with a coordinator, they form a compound sentence. Generally speaking, compound sentences give equal emphasis to the ideas in each independent clause, as in the following example:

Students can take the exam in person, **or** they can choose to do it online.

Accuracy and Punctuation

Use coordinators to join independent clauses. In North American varieties of English, it is normal to place a comma before the coordinator; in British and other varieties of English, no comma is required.

I had no time to prepare for the exam, **yet** I still got an A. (with comma)

I had no time to prepare for the exam **yet** I still got an A. (no comma)

Style

If you use too many compound sentences, your writing style may seem rather simple and repetitive. If the relationship between two independent clauses is cause and effect or contrast, you may want to consider alternatives with different structures, for example:

I knew the final exam would be difficult,
so I prepared for two weeks.

(compound sentence with
the coordinator *so*)

I knew the final exam would be difficult;
therefore, I prepared for two weeks.

(two independent clauses
joined by the conjunctive
adverb *therefore*)

Since I knew the final exam would be
difficult, I prepared for two weeks.

(complex sentence formed
with the subordinator *since*)

To review compound sentences, see Unit 3 in the Handbook, p. 184.

Summary: Coordinators

For has a literary, narrative tone; it is uncommon in most academic writing.

When *nor* is placed at the beginning of an independent clause, invert the subject-verb order (see Unit 14 in the Handbook, p. 259).

Coordinator	Use	Example
<i>for</i>	To express a reason	My school years were happy, for I had not a care in the world.
<i>and</i>	To add information and examples	The final exam took place yesterday, and 80 students were present in the exam hall.
<i>nor</i>	To add information and examples in negative sentences	Students could not check their notes, nor were they allowed to use calculators.
<i>but</i>	To join ideas when there is an idea of contrast	The final exam was difficult, but some students still got high grades.
<i>or</i>	To add alternative information and examples	Students can take the exam in person, or they can choose to do it online.
<i>yet</i>	To express an unexpected idea of contrast	I had no time to prepare for the exam, yet I still managed to get an A.
<i>so</i>	To express an effect or result	I knew the final exam would be difficult, so I prepared for two weeks.
In Series or Lists		
<i>and</i>	To add a similar item to a series or list	To prepare for the writing test, I revised articles, tenses, and punctuation.
<i>or</i>	To add an alternative item to a series or list	I had three choices: retake the course, retake the final exam, or accept the N (incomplete) grade.

SUBORDINATORS

To review dependent clauses and complex sentences, see Unit 3 in the Handbook, pp. 183 and 184.

Subordinators can be used to link the ideas in two clauses. When subordinators are used at the beginning of a clause, they make it dependent. The dependent clause (also called a *subordinate clause*) should be joined to an independent clause to make a complete, complex sentence.

Meaning

When you link two clauses with a subordinator, you can convey a range of meanings about how the two clauses interrelate:

- time: *before*, *while*
- contrast: *although*, *whereas*
- reason: *because*, *since*
- condition: *if*, *whether*

Before nuclear power was developed, most power stations were coal-fired.
(time)

Although nuclear power is efficient, it does present serious risks. (contrast)
Many people oppose nuclear power **because** they worry about accidents.
(reason)

Climate change activists are unsure **whether** the risks outweigh the benefits.
(condition)

Emphasis

Complex sentences are often written with a dependent clause preceding the independent clause. In such cases, the information in the independent clause usually carries more emphasis. If the independent clause precedes the dependent clause, the emphasis is less clear.

1. **Although** nuclear power is efficient, it does present serious risks.
2. Many people oppose nuclear power **because** they worry about accidents.

In sentence 1, the idea of serious risk is emphasized as the independent clause comes second in the sentence. In sentence 2, the dependent clause comes second in the sentence; in this case, it is less clear whether the writer is emphasizing opposition or accidents.

Accuracy and Punctuation

Use a comma to separate dependent and independent clauses if the dependent clause comes first in the sentence. No comma is required if the dependent clause comes second in the sentence.

Although nuclear power is efficient, it does present serious risks. (with comma)

Many people oppose nuclear power **because** they worry about accidents.
(no comma)

Style

The use of subordinators and complex sentences adds a degree of formality and sophistication to academic writing. This is especially the case when two clauses are related by an idea of time, contrast, or cause and effect.

Most power stations used to be coal-fired; **then** nuclear energy was developed.

Before nuclear power was developed, most power stations were coal-fired.
(improved academic style)

Nuclear power is efficient, **but** it does present serious risks.

Although nuclear power is efficient, it does present serious risks. (added formality)

Many people oppose nuclear power, **and** they worry about accidents.
(imprecise expression of cause and effect)

Many people oppose nuclear power **because** they worry about accidents.
(improved academic style)

Summary: Subordinators

Subordinators	Use	Examples
Time		
<i>after</i> <i>as long as</i> <i>as soon as</i> <i>before</i> <i>until</i> <i>when</i> <i>while</i>	To convey time relations	<p>Before nuclear power was developed, most power stations were coal-fired.</p> <p>After an earthquake caused a nuclear meltdown at a nearby power plant, public confidence in nuclear power declined.</p> <p>When the site for the power station was announced, local people expressed concern about health risks.</p> <p>While the site was being developed, the environment protection agency carried out a detailed assessment. Construction began as soon as the assessment was complete.</p> <p>As long as people need electricity, nuclear power will have a place in the energy market.</p> <p>The plant didn't open until all safety checks had been made.</p>
Contrast		
<i>although</i> <i>even though</i> <i>whereas</i> <i>while</i> <i>whilst</i> (British English)	To express contrast	<p>Although nuclear power is efficient, it does present serious risks.</p> <p>The project was completed even though it ran over budget by \$20 million. (stronger contrast than <i>although</i>)</p> <p>The UK power plant took seven years to build whereas/while/whilst its Korean equivalent was finished in five.</p>
Reason		
<i>because</i> <i>as</i> <i>since</i>	To describe reasons	<p>Many people oppose nuclear power because/as/since they worry about accidents.</p>
Condition		
<i>if</i> <i>unless</i> <i>whether</i>	To describe conditions	<p>If nuclear power reduces global CO₂ emissions, should it be supported in the fight against climate change?</p> <p>Unless the risks are reduced, many people may remain suspicious of nuclear energy.</p> <p>Environmentalists are divided over whether they should support nuclear power. (two possibilities)</p>

As and *since* can also convey time relations, so avoid using them to describe reasons unless the meaning is clear.

CORRELATIVE CONJUNCTIONS

Correlative conjunctions are linking words that are used in pairs to join two or more related ideas in a sentence.

Meaning

Correlative conjunctions can be used to express the following meanings, often with a sense of emphasis:

- addition: *both . . . and, not only . . . (but) also*
- one or the other: *either . . . or, neither . . . nor, whether . . . or*

Both English **and** Mandarin are major world languages. (addition)

Neither English **nor** Spanish majors can take the course. (not one or the other)

Accuracy

If a sentence contains two subjects joined by a pair of correlative conjunctions, the verb agrees with the nearer subject.

Neither Mandarin classes **nor** individual instruction **is offered** at the university.

Either Advanced English **or** elective foreign language courses **are taken** in the second year.

Maintain parallel structure when using correlative conjunctions.

English majors can study **not only** English literature **but also** linguistics.

English majors can complete their programs by **either** studying linguistics **or** taking elective foreign language courses.

Style

Correlative conjunctions add a formal, academic style to writing.

Summary: Correlative Conjunctions

Correlative Conjunctions	Use	Examples
Addition		
<i>both . . . and not only . . . (but) also</i>	To add ideas and examples	Both English and Mandarin are major world languages. Mandarin is not only difficult to pronounce, it is also hard to write.
One or the Other		
<i>either . . . or neither . . . nor whether . . . or</i>	To express the idea of one or the other	English majors can take either 19th century poetry or modern fiction. Neither French nor Spanish majors can take the course. Whether you take Spanish or choose another elective, the courses will be for four credits.

To review subject-verb agreement and parallel structure, see Units 10 and 12 in the Handbook, pp. 231 and 245.

The following are additional linking words and phrases that are common in academic writing.

Linking Words for Exemplification

A specific group of conjunctive adverbs is used to introduce examples in sentences:

- *for example*
- *for instance*
- *namely*
- *such as*

1. College writing poses many challenges, **for example**, when students have to learn and use different citation styles.
2. College writing poses many challenges, **for instance**, academic vocabulary and correct citation style.
3. College writing is challenging; **for example**, students need to use formal English and correct citation style.

In sentence 1, *for example* is set off by commas because the following example is a dependent clause. In sentence 2, *for instance* is set off by commas because the following examples are noun phrases. In sentence 3, *for example* is set off by a semicolon and a comma because the following example is an independent clause.

4. Citation styles **such as** APA and MLA are challenging.
5. Most college essays, **such as** lab reports and response papers, require specific structures.

In sentence 4, *such as* introduces a defining phrase, so no commas are required. In sentence 5, *such as* introduces a non-defining phrase, so commas are required.

6. Good college writing is based on two key skills, **namely**, effective reading and critical thinking.
7. Good college writers use two key skills; **namely**, they read effectively and think critically.

In sentence 6, *namely* is set off by commas because the following examples are noun phrases. In sentence 7, *namely* is set off by a semicolon and a comma because the following example is an independent clause.

Linking Words for Enumeration

Another type of conjunctive adverb is commonly used to add cohesion in academic writing by expressing sequence:

- *first(ly)*
- *second(ly)*
- *third(ly)*
- *finally*

College writing poses several challenges to first-year students. **First**, it is often very different from the writing they did in secondary school. **Second**, students have to learn how to write many different types of essay. **Third**, they often get less support from their instructors. **Finally**, the stakes are much higher.

Learn more about linking words for exemplification in Chapter 7, pp. 161–162.

APA CITATION STYLE

APA (American Psychological Association) citation style is used in many publications, particularly in social and behavioural sciences. The following APA formats for writing in-text citations and references lists are some of the most common forms you will need for academic writing. You can find complete guidelines for APA citation style in the *Publication Manual of the American Psychological Association*, Sixth Edition.

IN-TEXT CITATIONS

Every time you use a statistic, idea, image, or creative work that is not your own, you are required to acknowledge your source with a citation in the text—an *in-text citation*. Each in-text citation should match a corresponding entry in the reference list at the end of the essay.

APA in-text citations should include the author's or authors' surname(s) and the year of publication, separated by a comma, in parentheses after the cited information. If a source has no date, use the letters *n.d.* in the parentheses instead.

Surname and year: (Casanave, 2002)

Source with no date: ("El Niño," n.d.)

For direct quotations, include page numbers, preceded by *p* or *pp*, a period, and a space. The APA manual also recommends, but does not require, that paraphrased information include page numbers.

Page numbers only: (pp. 118–119)

Source and page numbers: (Morton, Storch, & Thompson, 2015, p. 9)

Authors

Inclusion of the Author's Name in the Citation Phrase

If you include the name of the author in the citation phrase, it is not necessary to repeat it in the following parentheses.

Casanave (2002) suggests that academic writing is like a game and writers need to learn the rules of the game to succeed.

If the name of the author is not part of the citation phrase, include it in the following parentheses.

It has been suggested that academic writing is like a game and writers need to learn the rules of the game to succeed (Casanave, 2002).

Unless marked with an asterisk (*), the examples throughout the appendix refer to texts cited in this book.

More Than One Author

If two authors' names are included in a citation phrase, join them with *and*; if they appear in parentheses, join them with an ampersand (&).

Richards and Stedmon (2016) discuss the issue of delegation and control in autonomous cars.

Delegation and control in autonomous cars are key safety concepts to consider (Richards & Stedmon, 2016).

For sources with three to five authors, list them all the first time the source is cited. Further citations should include the first author only and *et al.* (not italicized).

First citation: Marshall, Zhou, Gervan, and Wiebe (2012) analyze the factors that relate to first-year university students' sense of belonging in a Canadian university.

Next citation: Sense of belonging is clearly an important aspect of student success to consider during the first year of higher education (Marshall et al., 2012).

For sources with six or more authors, write the name of the first author followed by *et al.* in all citations.

*Aman et al. (2015) review the health and environmental safety of solar energy systems.

No Author

For sources that do not have an author, cite the title of the work. For short works, for example, journal articles and book chapters, place the title in quotation marks. For longer works, such as books, use italics. If a work has a long title, you may shorten it in parentheses.

*In "Brexit and Parliament, Questions of Sovereignty" (2016), the complex interrelationships between the UK and European parliaments are discussed in terms of competing views of sovereignty.

*The complex interrelationships between the UK and European parliaments have been discussed in terms of competing views of sovereignty ("Brexit and Parliament," 2016).

Multiple Sources in a Citation

When you include two or more sources in an in-text citation, order the authors (or titles of works with no author) alphabetically, and separate them with semicolons.

A number of studies in recent years have analyzed paraphrasing, patch-writing, and plagiarism (Badge & Scott, 2009; Bailey & Challen, 2015; Ellery, 2008; Harwood & Petric, 2012).

Print Sources

Multiple Works by the Same Author

If you cite more than one work by the same author and published *in the same year*, differentiate the works by adding the letters *a*, *b*, *c*, etc., after the year. The letters refer to the alphabetical order in which the reference list entries appear.

*Canagarajah (2013a) discusses individual choices, power relations, and agency in intercultural communication.

If you cite more than one work by the same author but published in *different years*, separate the years of the works with commas.

The history of homeopathy in Germany and its central role in the development of the double-blind control trial is discussed by Stolberg (1999, 2006).

The Nuremberg salt test of 1835 played a central role in the history of homeopathy in Germany and the development of the double-blind control trial (Stolberg, 1999, 2006).

Secondary Sources

If you are citing a source that you read about elsewhere, without having read the original work, begin the in-text citation with the phrase *as cited in*.

Spady argues that post-secondary students' social integration is informed by a social system (the campus) and the sum of its parts (as cited in Marshall et al., 2012).

Citing Multiple Pages

Use the following formats to cite information from multiple pages of the same work.

Consecutive pages: Marshall et al. (2012) address critiques that have been made of Spady's (1971) model of student integration (pp. 118–119).

Non-consecutive pages: Marshall et al. (2012) consider the critiques that various authors have made of Tinto's (1975) model of student retention (pp. 119, 134).

Direct Quotations

Direct Quotations of Fewer Than 40 Words

Direct quotations of fewer than 40 words should be integrated grammatically into sentences and enclosed in quotation marks. Page numbers should be provided in parentheses immediately after the quotation. If the quotation appears at the end of a sentence, place the final punctuation mark outside the parentheses.

In their conclusion, Morton, Storch, and Thompson (2015) highlight “the unpredictable and unexpected practices contributing to the students' progress as academic writers” (p. 9).

Writing teachers need to become more aware of the “unpredictable and unexpected practices contributing to the students' progress as academic writers” (Morton, Storch, & Thompson, 2015, p. 9).

Punctuation from the original text, for example, question marks, should remain within the quotation marks; punctuation that you add should be placed outside the quotation marks.

Original punctuation: Morton, Storch, and Thompson (2015) ask the following question: “Do the students' perceptions of themselves as academic writers change?” (p. 3).

Added punctuation: Should we agree with Morton, Storch, and Thompson's conclusion (2015) that progress in academic writing is the product of “unpredictable and unexpected practices” (p. 9)?

Direct Quotations of 40 Words or More

Direct quotations of 40 words or more should be dropped one line, indented a half inch (1.25 cm) from the left margin, and not enclosed in quotation marks. The final period should be placed before the in-text citation rather than after.

Many linguists agree that the average age of language speakers largely indicates a language's health and predicted longevity. UNESCO's "Atlas of the World's Languages in Danger of Disappearing" (Wurm, 1996) noted that at least one-third of the children should be learning the language to maintain its vitality. This is not the case in Canada, where:

*According to the 2006 Census, 18% of First Nations children across Canada had an Aboriginal language as their mother tongue (or first language learned), down from 21% in 1996. Older generations of First Nations people are generally more likely than younger generations to have an Aboriginal language as their mother tongue. (Bougie, 2010, p. 75)

Omitting Words from Direct Quotations

If you omit words from a direct quotation, indicate the omission with an ellipsis (three spaced periods: . . .).

With reference to students taking the ALC course, Marshall et al. (2012) stress the need to focus on "the academic literacy development of students . . . and to recognize and respect the varied social, cultural, and linguistic backgrounds of students" (p. 135).

Adding Words to Direct Quotations

If you add words to improve the clarity of a direct quotation, enclose the added word(s) in square brackets.

With reference to students taking the ALC course, Marshall et al. (2012) stress the need to focus on "[writers'] social, cultural, and linguistic backgrounds" (p. 135).

Online Sources

With an Author

If an online source has an author, it should be cited by the author's name and year of publication, as for print sources.

*Diesendorf (2016) aims to dispel what he sees as myths in the renewable versus nuclear power debate.

No Author

If the online source has no author, you should include the title of the work being cited and the year of publication in the in text citation. As for print sources, use quotation marks for short works (e.g., journal articles and book chapters), and italics for longer works (e.g., books). If a work has a long title, you may shorten it in parentheses. If it has no date, write *n.d.*

*The effects of extreme weather events on coastal communities in Ecuador have been well documented by National Geographic ("El Niño," n.d.).

No Author or Title

If the information you are citing is from a website that has no author or title, cite the website address only, in parentheses. In such cases, you are not required to include a matching reference list entry at the end of the essay.

*Today, over 70 so-called generation III reactors are under construction, including 29 in energy hungry China ([www.world-nuclear.org/info/Current-and-Future-Generation/Nuclear Power in the World Today](http://www.world-nuclear.org/info/Current-and-Future-Generation/Nuclear-Power-in-the-World-Today)).

With Numbered Paragraphs

If you are directly quoting information from an online source with no page numbers but with numbered paragraphs, indicate the paragraph numbers in parentheses, using the abbreviation *para*, followed by a period, a space, and the paragraph number, for example, (para. 5).

Personal Communications: Conversations, Interviews, and E-Mail

Use the following format to cite personal communications such as a conversation, interview, or e-mail correspondence. Do not include a corresponding entry in the reference list.

(D. Moore, personal communication, November 21, 2016)

REFERENCE LISTS

APA reference lists should include one entry for each source that has been cited with an in-text citation. APA format requires that the reference list appear at the end of the essay, on a separate page, with the title *References* centred at the top of the page.

Reference list entries should be double-spaced, arranged alphabetically by the author's surname or by the title of an unauthored source. All lines other than the first line of each entry should be indented by a half inch (1.25 cm) from the left margin. The examples below illustrate the most common types of reference list entries. However, they are not double-spaced, as would be required in an essay.

Number of Authors

An article, chapter, or book may have no author or different numbers of authors. Use the following formats, depending on the number of authors.

No Author

Begin the reference list entry with the title of the article, chapter, or book:

*Brexit and parliament: Questions of sovereignty (2016, November 12).
The Economist, 54–55.

One Author

Begin the reference list entry with the author's surname and initial(s):

Casanave, C. P. (2002). *Writing games: Multicultural case studies of academic literacy practices in higher education*. Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

Two Authors

Begin the reference list entry with the first author's surname and initial(s), followed by a comma, an ampersand (&), and the second author's surname and initial(s):

*McIvor, O., & Parker, A. (2016). Back to the future: Recreating natural Indigenous language learning environments through language nest early childhood immersion programs. *The International Journal of Holistic Early Learning and Development*, 3, 21-35.

Three to Seven Authors

Write the reference list entry as above, adding authors as in the following example:

Marshall, S., Zhou, M., Gervan, T., & Wiebe, S. (2012). Sense of belonging and first-year academic literacy. *Canadian Journal of Higher Education*, 42(3), 116-142.

Eight or More Authors

List the first six authors' surnames and initials, add three spaced periods, and then list the final author's surname and initial(s):

*Aman, M. M., Solangi, K. H., Hossain, M. S., Badarudin, A., Jasmon, G. B., Mokhlis, H., . . . & Kazi, S. N. (2015). A review of Safety, Health and Environmental (SHE) issues of solar energy system. *Renewable and Sustainable Energy Reviews*, 41, 1190-1204.

Formats for Print Sources

Use the following formats for different sources.

Journal Article

Include the DOI
(digital object identifier)
if available.

Surname(s), Initial(s). (year). Title of article. *Title of Journal*, volume number(issue number), page number(s). doi:xxxxx

Bailey, C., & Challen, R. (2015). Student perceptions of the value of Turnitin text-matching software as a learning tool. *Practitioner Research in Higher Education*, 9(1), 38-51.

Chapter in an Edited Collection

Surname(s), Initial(s). (year). Title of chapter. In Initial(s). Surname(s) (Ed[s].), *Title of book* (pp. xxx-xxx). Place of publication: Publisher.

*Suranovic, S. (2015). The meaning of fair trade. In L. T. Reynolds, & E. A. Bennett (Eds.), *Handbook of research on fair trade* (pp. 45-60). Cheltenham, UK: Edward Elgar.

Magazine Article

Surname(s), Initial(s). (year, Month day). Title of article. *Title of Magazine*, volume number(issue number), page number(s).

*Loder, N. (2016, December). Crumbs of comfort. *The Economist* 1843, 104-105.

Newspaper Article

Surname(s), Initial(s). (year, Month day). Title of article. *Title of Newspaper*, p(p). xxx.

*Brody, J. E. (2017, January 16). Why we need to emancipate ourselves from smartphones. *The Globe and Mail*, p. L3.

Book

Surname(s), Initial(s). (year). *Title of book*. Place of publication: Publisher.

Casanave, C. P. (2002). *Writing games: Multicultural case studies of academic literacy practices in higher education*. Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

Multiple Publications by the Same Author

If you have cited two or more works by the same author and published in the same year, order the works alphabetically according to their titles, and add a, b, c, etc., to the year for each different work.

*Canagarajah, A. S. (2013a). Agency and power in intercultural communication: Negotiating English in translocal spaces. *Language and Intercultural Communication*, 13(2), 202–224.

*Canagarajah, A. S. (2013b). The end of second language writing? *Journal of Second Language Writing*, 22(4), 440–441.

If you have cited two or more works by the same author and published in different years, order the works by year, with the earliest work first.

Casanave, C. P. (2002). *Writing games: Multicultural case studies of academic literacy practices in higher education*. Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

Casanave, C. P. (2010). Taking risks?: A case study of three doctoral students writing qualitative dissertations at an American university in Japan. *Journal of Second Language Writing*, 19(1), 1–16.

Works Published by Organizations

If you have cited a work published by an organization (governmental or non-governmental), list the entry by the name of the organization, not the title of the work.

Name of Organization. (year). *Title of work*. Place of publication: Publisher.

European Environment Agency. (2016). *Explaining road transport emissions: A non-technical guide*. Copenhagen: EEA.

Formats for Online Sources

Reference list entries for electronic sources require the inclusion of the URL in most cases. It is only necessary to include a retrieval date if it is likely that the source will change, for example, a wiki. The following are common forms of reference list entries for electronic sources.

Web Page with an Author

Begin the reference list entry with the author's surname and initial:

Surname, Initial. (year, Month day). Title of document. Retrieved from URL

Include a description of the content in square brackets after the title if it may help readers identify or retrieve the source.

Weimer, M. (2015, October 14). How concerned should we be about cell phones in class? [Web log post]. Retrieved from <http://www.facultyfocus.com/articles/teaching-professor-blog/how-concerned-should-we-be-about-cell-phones-in-class/>

Web Page with No Author

Begin the reference list entry with the title of the web page or article, or the name of the organization:

Title of article/page. (year, Month day). *Title of Site*. Retrieved from URL

OR

Name of Organization. (year, Month day). Title of article/page. *Title of Site*. Retrieved from URL

*El Niño [Encyclopedic entry]. (n.d.). *National Geographic Society*. Retrieved from <http://nationalgeographic.org/encyclopedia/el-nino/>

Eurostat. (2016, October 19). Air pollution statistics. *Statistics Explained*. Retrieved from http://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/statisticsexplained/index.php/Air_pollution_statistics

Article from an Online Academic Journal

Many online academic journal articles now have a digital object identifier (DOI). In such cases, the APA manual stipulates that the DOI should be used instead of the article's URL, with no retrieval date required.

Surname(s), Initial(s). (year). Title of article. *Title of Journal*, volume number(issue number), page numbers. doi:xxxxx

*Ma, L., & Tsui, A. S. (2015). Traditional Chinese philosophies and contemporary leadership. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 26(1), 13–24. doi:10.1016/j.leaqua.2014.11.008

Online Newspaper Article

Surname(s), Initial(s). (year, Month day). Title of article. *Title of Newspaper*. Retrieved from URL

James, E. (2014, November 26). Prison is not for punishment in Sweden. We get people into better shape. *The Guardian*. Retrieved from <http://www.theguardian.com/society/2014/nov/26/prison-sweden-not-punishment-nils-oberg>

Online Magazine Article

Surname(s), Initial(s). (year, Month day). Title of article. *Title of Magazine*. Retrieved from URL

*Harford, T. (2015, May 29). Mind the fair trade gap. *FT Magazine*. Retrieved from <https://next.ft.com/content/fc9a2e14-03e1-11e5-a70f-00144feabdc0>

Online Encyclopedia Entry

Title of article. (year, Month day). In *Title of Encyclopedia*. Retrieved from URL

3D printing. (2016, January 26). In *Encyclopædia Britannica*. Retrieved from <https://www.britannica.com/technology/3D-printing>

35 MISTAKES TO AVOID IN ACADEMIC WRITING

A complete list of mistakes to avoid in academic writing would be endless. Here are 35 common mistakes that writers make.

PUNCTUATION

The following are common mistakes when using commas, semicolons, and colons.

1. Comma Splices

Avoid writing comma splices: sentences in which two independent clauses are joined by a comma.

- ✗ Crime prevention strategies have been successful during the last year, they also have the support of the central government.
- ✓ Crime prevention strategies have been successful during the last year; they also have the support of the central government.
- ✓ Crime prevention strategies have been successful during the last year. They also have the support of the central government.

2. Commas: Inconsistency

It is important to use commas consistently. For example, you should avoid including commas in some sentences and not in others (e.g., before coordinators and after introductory phrases—in bold in the following examples).

- ✗ **Between 2002 and 2012** crime fell gradually within the European Union. **During the same period,** violent crime fell in some EU countries **yet** figures rose in others. The inconsistency in violent crime rates is difficult to explain, **and** criminologists are looking for explanations.
- ✓ **Between 2002 and 2012,** crime fell gradually within the European Union. **During the same period,** violent crime fell in some EU countries, **yet** figures rose in others. The inconsistency in violent crime rates is difficult to explain, **and** criminologists are looking for explanations.

3. Commas: Confusing Sentences

In several writing genres, for example, journalistic and informal writing, commas are not used consistently after introductory phrases before an independent clause. If you are not including commas after introductory phrases, avoid confusing your reader due to the lack of commas.

- ✗ To reduce **crime prevention** is a more effective focus than punishment.
- ✓ To reduce **crime, prevention** is a more effective focus than punishment.

Because *crime prevention* is a common compound noun, if the writer omits the comma, the first part of the sentence could be read as “to reduce crime prevention” rather than “to reduce crime.”

4. Semicolons: Incorrect Use in Complex Sentences

It is incorrect to use a semicolon to separate a dependent and independent clause in a complex sentence. Use a comma instead.

- ✗ Although the fair trade movement benefits many small-scale farmers world-wide; it benefits intermediaries even more.
- ✓ Although the fair trade movement benefits many small-scale farmers world-wide, it benefits intermediaries even more.

5. Semicolons: Incorrect Use in Lists of Items

Use semicolons to separate items in a list only if at least one of the items includes a comma.

- ✗ The fair trade movement needs to find strategies to address three important issues: expensive registration costs; excessive profits for intermediaries; and unstable product prices in world markets.
- ✓ The fair trade movement needs to find strategies to address three important issues: expensive registration costs, excessive profits for intermediaries, and unstable product prices in world markets.
- ✓ The fair trade movement needs to find strategies to address three important issues: expensive registration costs, which affect farmers; excessive profits for intermediaries; and unstable product prices in world markets.

6. Colons: Incorrect Use When Introducing Examples and Lists

Do not use a colon when you introduce a list or examples that are incorporated grammatically into the sentence.

- ✗ Two key challenges in international business relations in Africa are: responding to globalization and adapting to Western business practices.
- ✓ Two key challenges in international business relations in Africa are responding to globalization and adapting to Western business practices.
- ✓ Two key challenges in international business relations in Africa are **the following**: responding to globalization and adapting to Western business practices.
- ✓ Business leaders in Africa face two key **challenges**: responding to globalization and adapting to Western business practices.

7. Colons: Incorrect Use When Introducing Direct Quotations

It is correct usage to place a colon at the end of an independent clause to introduce direct quotations. However, do not use a colon to introduce a direct quotation that is incorporated grammatically into the sentence.

- ✗ *It is important for leadership assessments to be performed: “in a structured manner, primarily based on behavioral criteria” (Peus et al., 2012, p. 106).

- ✓ *It is important for leadership assessments to be performed “in a structured manner, primarily based on behavioral criteria” (Peus et al., 2012, p. 106).
- ✓ *Leadership assessments should be performed to link organizational structure and work patterns **as follows**: “in a structured manner, primarily based on behavioral criteria” (Peus et al., 2012, p. 106).

LINKING WORDS

Avoid the following mistakes when you use linking words to join your ideas and arguments.

8. *Although* and *Even Though* Followed Directly by a Comma

Do not introduce a sentence with the subordinators *although* or *even though* followed by a comma.

- ✗ Certain nutritionists recommend olive oil. **Although**, it is too expensive for many families to use on a daily basis.
- ✓ Certain nutritionists recommend olive oil. **However**, it is too expensive for many families to use on a daily basis. (Use a conjunctive adverb such as *however*.)
- ✓ **Although** certain nutritionists recommend olive oil, it is too expensive for many families to use on a daily basis. (Move the subordinator to form a dependent clause.)

9. *Although* and *Even Though* with *But*

If you begin a dependent clause with *although* or *even though*, do not begin the following independent clause with *but*. The idea of contrast has already been expressed by the subordinator.

- ✗ Although certain nutritionists recommend olive oil, **but** it is too expensive for many families to use on a daily basis.
- ✓ Although certain nutritionists recommend olive oil, it is too expensive for many families to use on a daily basis.

10. *In Contrast* versus *On the Contrary*

Use *in contrast* to introduce contrasting information. Use *on the contrary* to contradict or disagree with an argument stated previously.

- ✗ High school writing often involves formulas such as the five-paragraph essay. **On the contrary**, college writing varies greatly across the disciplines.
- ✓ High school writing often involves formulas such as the five-paragraph essay. **In contrast**, college writing varies greatly across the disciplines.
- ✓ It has been argued that high school writing is too easy. **On the contrary**, I found that many students wrote a range of challenging texts in Grades 11 and 12.

This is a common mistake when translating from certain languages into English.

Avoid the following mistakes with nouns and verbs commonly used in academic writing.

11. *Criteria and Phenomena: Singular versus Plural Forms*

Nouns that have their origins in Greek, for example, *criteria* and *phenomena*, are often used incorrectly, even by experienced academics. Avoid confusing the singular and plural forms of these nouns.

- ✗ The **criteria** for the in-class essay **was** confusing.
- ✓ The **criteria** for the in-class essay **were** confusing.
- ✗ There are many important **criterion** for college success.
- ✓ There are many important **criteria** for college success.
- ✗ The essay was about a weather **phenomena** known as *urban heat islands*.
- ✓ The essay was about a weather **phenomenon** known as *urban heat islands*.
- ✗ Several **phenomenon** cause urban heat islands.
- ✓ Several **phenomena** cause urban heat islands.

12. *Effect versus Affect*

Avoid making mistakes with *effect* and *affect* when describing causal relations. Each word can be used as a noun or a verb with different meanings. In most contexts, *effect* is a noun and *affect*, the corresponding verb, as illustrated below.

- ✗ Higher temperatures and pollution had a negative **affect** on air quality in the city.
- ✓ Higher temperatures and pollution had a negative **effect** on air quality in the city. (noun)
- ✗ Higher temperatures and pollution **effected** air quality in the city.
- ✓ Higher temperatures and pollution **affected** air quality in the city. (verb)

Effect can also be used as a verb meaning “to bring something about or make happen.” *Affect* as a noun refers to an emotion that is related to behaviour. The following examples illustrate these less common usages.

- ✓ The new anti-pollution policies **effected** little change in the city.
- ✓ **Affect** is an important psychological factor in individuals’ responses to requests and instructions.

13. *Affect versus Effect on, Emphasize versus Emphasis on*

In several cases, when you have the choice of expressing relationships of cause and effect or emphasis with either a verb or a corresponding noun, use the preposition *on* with the noun.

- ✗ Higher temperatures and pollution **affected on** air quality in the city.
- ✓ Higher temperatures and pollution **affected** air quality in the city.
- ✓ Higher temperatures and pollution **had an effect on** air quality in the city.

- ✗ The new mayor **emphasized on** tackling air pollution when he came to office.
- ✓ The new mayor **emphasized** tackling air pollution when he came to office.
- ✓ The new mayor **placed an emphasis on** tackling air pollution when he came to office.

HOMOPHONES

Some words sound the same but have different meanings and spellings. The following examples are commonly confused.

14. *There, Their, and They're*

- ✗ **Their** are several benefits to using cellphones for learning.
- ✓ **There** are several benefits to using cellphones for learning.
- ✗ Many teachers don't allow students to use cellphones in **there** classes.
- ✓ Many teachers don't allow students to use cellphones in **their** classes.
- ✗ Students may distract others when **there** texting friends.
- ✓ Students may distract others when **they're** texting friends.

15. *Your and You're*

- ✗ Please check **you're** phone for updates to the schedule.
- ✓ Please check **your** phone for updates to the schedule.
- ✗ **Your** arriving at 16:45 tomorrow afternoon.
- ✓ **You're** arriving at 16:45 tomorrow afternoon.

SPELLING: DOUBLE CONSONANTS

16. *Incorrect Double Consonants*

Writers sometimes make mistakes when they are spelling multi-syllable words that may or may not require double consonants when adding a suffix. If the suffix begins with a vowel (*ed*, *ing*), you can apply the following rule: a) double the consonant after a *short stressed vowel sound*; b) do not double the consonant after an *unstressed vowel sound*.

- ✗ The artefacts were **interred** 2,000 years ago.
- ✓ The artefacts were **interred** 2,000 years ago.
- ✗ The archaeologists **enterred** the site after a year of preparation.
- ✓ The archaeologists **entered** the site after a year of preparation.

RELATIVE CLAUSES

The following are some of the most common mistakes that writers make when they form relative clauses.

Which is commonly used as a relative pronoun in defining clauses in British English

17. Confusing Defining and Non-Defining Relative Clauses

Avoid writing non-defining relative clauses as defining relative clauses, and vice versa.

In each example below, the defining relative clause gives essential information about the subject of the independent clause. It explains that the writer is referring to a specific Business class—the one she is taking this term, not the other Business classes she may have taken. Do not set off defining clauses with commas, and use the relative pronouns *that* or *which* for things.

- ✗ The Business class, **that I'm taking this term**, is difficult.
- ✓ The Business class **that I'm taking this term** is difficult.
- ✓ The Business class **which I'm taking this term** is difficult. (British English)

In the next two examples, the non-defining clause gives non-essential information about the noun *exam* in the independent clause. It provides extra information—that the Business exam was more difficult than expected. Set off non-defining clauses with commas, and use the relative pronoun *which* for things, not *that*. Note that the incorrect non-defining clause suggests that there was more than one exam: one that was more difficult than expected and one that wasn't.

- ✗ I got an A in the Business exam **which was more difficult than expected**.
- ✓ I got an A in the Business exam, **which was more difficult than expected**.

18. *That* versus *Where*

Avoid incorrect use of *that* and *where* in defining relative clauses that require a verb and corresponding preposition. The following examples show incorrect and correct usage of *that* and *where* in phrases that refer to the following idea: I lived in that country when I was a child.

- ✗ That is the country **that I lived** when I was a child. (The preposition *in* is missing.)
- ✗ That is the country **where I lived in** when I was a child. (The preposition *in* is unnecessary.)
- ✓ That is the country **that I lived in** when I was a child.
- ✓ That is the country **where I lived** when I was a child.
- ✓ That is the country **in which I lived** when I was a child. (formal)

19. *Whom* versus *Who*: Direct Objects

Whom can be used when referring to a person who is the direct object of the relative clause.

- ✗ He's the teaching assistant **whom** taught the lab class last term.
- ✓ He's the teaching assistant **who** taught the lab class last term.
- ✓ Is he the teaching assistant **whom** you recommended?

The first sentence is incorrect because *whom* should be *who* (as in sentence 2); it is the subject of the relative clause, referring back to *he*: **He** taught the lab class last term. The third sentence is correct because *whom* is the object of the relative clause, replacing *him*: You recommended **him**.

20. Whom versus Who: After Prepositions

Whom should also be used after prepositions.

- ✗ She's the student with **who** you took the lab class last term.
- ✓ She's the student with **whom** you took the lab class last term.

DANGLING MODIFIERS

Dangling modifiers are phrases or clauses, usually at the beginning of sentences, that “dangle”—in other words, they do not correspond to the grammatical subject of the main clause.

21. Dangling Modifiers: Participle Phrases

Dangling modifiers are most common in sentences that begin with participle phrases.

- ✗ **Originating in the 1980s**, I became interested in the slow food movement.
- ✓ **Originating in the 1980s**, slow food emerged in response to the spread of fast food.
- ✗ **Launched in 2001**, they soon learned about Slow Food International.
- ✓ **Launched in 2001**, Slow Food International gained worldwide attention.

The first incorrect sentence can be read as meaning the writer originated in the 1980s, not the slow food movement. The second incorrect sentence reads as if “they” were launched in 2001.

22. Dangling Modifiers: Preposition Phrases

In addition, avoid dangling modifiers in sentences that begin with preposition phrases.

- ✗ **At the age of 25**, the slow food movement became an integral part of my life.
- ✓ **At the age of 25**, I became very involved in the slow food movement.

PRONOUNS

Pronouns are words that take the place of a noun or noun phrase. For example, in the following sentence, the pronoun *him* refers to the noun *Michael*.

I bumped into Michael and asked **him** if I could borrow his lecture notes.

23. I versus Me

Use *and I* if a verb follows immediately. Use *and me* if no verb follows.

- ✗ **You and me** should attend the lecture next week.
- ✓ **You and I** should attend the lecture next week.
- ✗ She lent her lecture notes to **you and I**.
- ✓ She lent her lecture notes to **you and me**.

24. Ambiguous Pronouns

Avoid using pronouns that may confuse your reader by referring to more than one noun. In the following sentence, it is not clear whether the classmates or the lecture notes are not helpful.

- ✗ My classmates rarely share lecture notes because **they** aren't very helpful.
- ✓ My classmates rarely share lecture notes because they are too competitive.
- ✓ My classmates rarely share lecture notes because the notes they take aren't very helpful.

DESCRIBING QUANTITY

Be careful not to make mistakes with quantifiers such as *some*, and with phrases such as *a large number of* and *a large amount of*.

25. *Some* versus *Some of*

Use *some of* before determiners such as *the*, *those*, *my*, etc. The same rule applies for other quantifiers, for example, *many*, *a few*, etc.

- ✗ **Some of** questions in the quiz were very difficult.
- ✓ **Some** questions in the quiz were very difficult.
- ✓ **Some of the** questions in the quiz were very difficult.

26. *A Large Amount of* versus *A Large Number of*

Use *a large amount of* with uncountable nouns (nouns that have no plural form). Use *a large number of* with plural countable nouns.

- ✗ **A large amount of** students dislike final exams.
- ✓ **A large number of** students dislike final exams.
- ✓ There was **a large amount of** confusion about the final exam format.

27. *Less* versus *Fewer*

Use *less* with uncountable nouns and *fewer* with countable nouns. Avoid the common mistake of using *less* with plural countable nouns.

- ✗ The final exam had **less problem-solving questions** than the mid-term test.
- ✓ The final exam had **fewer problem-solving questions** than the mid-term test.

28. *Little*, *A Little*, *Few*, and *A Few*

Before uncountable nouns, *little* means “virtually none” while *a little* means “a small amount.”

- I had **little difficulty** answering all the questions. (virtually no difficulty)
- I had **a little difficulty** answering all the questions. (a small amount of difficulty)

Before plural countable nouns, *few* means “virtually none” while *a few* means “a small number.” *Little* means “small” when used with countable nouns.

There were **few questions** that I couldn’t answer. (virtually no questions)

There were **a few questions** that I couldn’t answer. (a small number of questions)

I had **a little problem** with the final question. (small, not serious problem)

✗ There were **little questions** that I couldn’t answer. (This means the questions were physically small.)

✓ There were **few questions** that I couldn’t answer.

✗ I hope there are **few questions** that I will be able to answer. (This means the speaker does not want to be able to answer the questions!)

✓ I hope there are **a few questions** that I will be able to answer.

IN-TEXT CITATIONS AND REFERENCE LISTS

The following are seven common mistakes to avoid when citing sources and writing reference list entries.

29. Reference List Not in Alphabetical Order

It is a requirement for APA and MLA citation styles that reference list entries be ordered alphabetically by author’s surname (or by publishing organization, or title for works with no identifiable author). Occasionally, titles of a work begin with a number; such works should be ordered numerically, coming before titles beginning with a letter. The following examples of an APA reference list illustrate this point.

✗ Casanave, C. P. (2002). *Writing games: Multicultural case studies of academic literacy practices in higher education*. Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

Bailey, C., & Challen, R. (2015). Student perceptions of the value of Turnitin text-matching software as a learning tool. *Practitioner Research in Higher Education*, 9(1), 38–51.

European Environment Agency (2016). *Explaining road transport emissions: A non-technical guide*. Copenhagen: EEA.

3D printing. (2016, January 26). In *Encyclopædia Britannica*. Retrieved from <https://www.britannica.com/technology/3D-printing>

✓ 3D printing. (2016, January 26). In *Encyclopædia Britannica*. Retrieved from <https://www.britannica.com/technology/3D-printing>

Bailey, C., & Challen, R. (2015). Student perceptions of the value of Turnitin text-matching software as a learning tool. *Practitioner Research in Higher Education*, 9(1), 38–51.

Casanave, C. P. (2002). *Writing games: Multicultural case studies of academic literacy practices in higher education*. Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

European Environment Agency (2016). *Explaining road transport emissions: A non-technical guide*. Copenhagen: EEA.

30. No Corresponding Reference List Entry for an In-Text Citation

Every in-text citation in the main body of the essay requires a corresponding entry in the reference list (except personal communications in APA style). Always cross-reference each in-text citation to avoid this mistake.

31. No Corresponding In-Text Citation for a Reference List Entry

Every reference list entry should correspond with an in-text citation in the main body of the essay. Always cross-reference each reference list entry to avoid this mistake.

32. Mismatch between the In-Text Citation and Reference List Entry

A reference list entry should begin with the same surname, organization, or work title as is indicated parenthetically in the corresponding in-text citation. Avoid a mismatch between the two as illustrated below.

In-text citation: ("3D printing," 2016)

References

- ✗ *Encyclopædia Britannica* (2016, January 26). 3D printing Retrieved from <https://www.britannica.com/technology/3D-printing>
- ✓ 3D printing. (2016, January 26). In *Encyclopædia Britannica*. Retrieved from <https://www.britannica.com/technology/3D-printing>

33. Formatting Inconsistencies

Avoid mixing up different citation styles as the following example illustrates. APA style is in bold, and MLA style is underlined.

- ✗ *Recent research has focused on different aspects of the business leadership nexus between China and the West: for example, how three leading Chinese philosophies—Daoism, Confucianism, and Legalism—can complement Western-influenced leadership in China (**Ma & Tsui, 2015**), and the need for Chinese approaches to stem the shift of Chinese leaders toward Western practices (Li 1-2). **Kim and Moon (2015)** focus on leadership and Corporate Social Responsibility (CSR), comparing CSR in Asia (from Pakistan eastward to Japan) and Western CSR, while the determinants for success in business leadership and the role of women leaders in China, India, and Singapore are discussed in **Peus, Braun, and Knipfer (2015)**. A recent study has also highlighted the need to promote Indigenous African forms of knowledge to meet the needs of the African workforce, addressing the growth in Asia-Africa relations (Kamoche et al. 331).

34. Ungrammatical Incorporation of Quotations

All short direct quotations (fewer than 40 words in APA style or four lines in MLA style) should be incorporated grammatically into sentences. Use a colon before direct quotations only if the quotation does not flow grammatically in the sentence.

Original information: *Drawing on articles that reported interviews of fifteen business leaders, we code their leadership behaviors according to the school they exemplify. We use these fifteen cases to illustrate, rather than as a test of, the propositions. Finally, we discuss how traditional culture could be a rich source of understanding for future leadership research in China and beyond. (Ma & Tsui, 2015, p. 14)

- ✗ Ma and Tsui (2015) present interviews with 15 Chinese business leaders in their analysis of traditional Chinese culture and its **potential** “a rich source of understanding for future leadership research” (p. 14).
- ✗ Ma and Tsui (2015) present interviews with 15 Chinese business leaders in their analysis of traditional Chinese culture and its **potential as:** “a rich source of understanding for future leadership research” (p. 14).
- ✓ Ma and Tsui (2015) present interviews with 15 Chinese business leaders in their analysis of traditional Chinese culture and its **potential as** “a rich source of understanding for future leadership research” (p. 14).

35. Lack of Concision in Quotations

Direct quotations should be concise and include only key ideas. Other information should be paraphrased.

Original information: *Although learning reflects knowledge acquired from teachers and others, thinking reflects digesting and internalizing what is learned. Ideal students of Confucius would use self-reflection to rigorously identify their own faults and develop actions for self improvement in the pursuit of self-perfection. (Ma & Tsui, p. 16)

- ✗ Ma and Tsui (2015) suggest that even though “learning reflects knowledge acquired from teachers and others, thinking reflects digesting and internalizing what is learned,” and that ideally, “students of Confucius would use self-reflection to rigorously identify their own faults and develop actions for self improvement in the pursuit of self-perfection” (p. 16).
- ✓ Ma and Tsui (2015) suggest that learning is a reflection of what is learned from teachers and others, and that thinking is a reflection of how knowledge is internalized. According to the authors, from a Confucian perspective, self-reflection should be employed by learners as part of the process of “self improvement in the pursuit of self-perfection” (p. 16).

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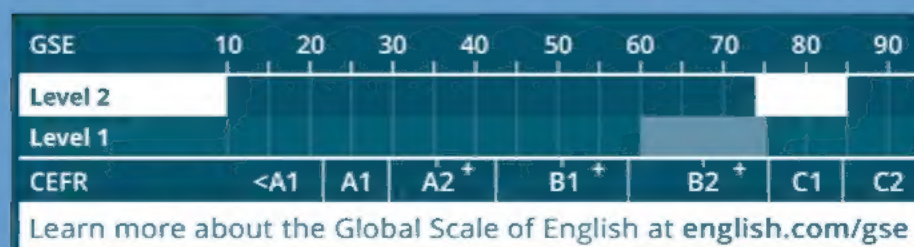
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